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ABSTRACT

Papers on foreign language education include: "Beliefs About Language Learning: A Study of Korean University Students Learning English" (Susan N. Truitt), which looked at the influence of cultural background and experience on language learning attitudes; "Motivation as a Two-Sided Coin: Motivational Differences Between College-Level Chinese and Japanese Learners of EFL" (Bill Teweles); "A Psycholinguistic Study of Relative Pronoun Use by Native Speakers and Non-Native Speakers of English" (Miho Yorozu), which focuses on developmental stages in learners' interlanguage systems and the relationship between language learning attitudes and language proficiency; "The Compensation Model" (Gi-Pyo Park), which proposes a model to help explain the difference between child and adult language acquisition in terms of different cognitive modules and theories; "Communicating Through Poetry in an ESL Classroom" (Mary Starz), demonstrating the use of poetry to teach intonation, adjectives, verbs, pronunciation, and syntax as well as self-expression; and "The Status of Foreign Language in the Elementary School in Austin: Is the Spirit Willing and the FLES Still Weak?" (Zena T. Moore, Angela Ramsay), reporting results of a study of foreign language instruction in Austin (Texas) elementary schools. (MSE)

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Beliefs About Language Learning: A Study of Korean University Students Learning English

SUSAN N. TRUITT

This study investigated the beliefs about language learning of university students learning English as a foreign language (EFL) in Korea. A total of 204 students enrolled in undergraduate English courses in Seoul, Korea, participated in this study. A questionnaire consisting of the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI, Horwitz, 1983, 1987) and a background questionnaire was translated into Korean and administered to the students. It was found that the Korean subjects in this study had some differences in their beliefs about language learning from those of American foreign language students (Horwitz, 1988), ESL students in the United States (Horwitz, 1987), EFL students in Taiwan (Yang, 1992), and even another group of EFL students in Korea (Park, 1995). In addition, the beliefs about language learning of the subjects in this study were correlated with background factors such as major and experience living in an English-speaking country. These findings provide evidence that learners' beliefs about language learning may vary based on their cultural backgrounds and previous experiences (Horwitz, 1987).

INTRODUCTION

It appears obvious that many language learners have definite beliefs about learning a foreign language. Whenever the topic of foreign languages comes up in a conversation, many people seem eager to express their views and opinions about language learning. With regard to beliefs about language learning, Omaggio (1978) states that good language learners have "insight into the nature of the task" (p. 2). Hosenfeld (1978) refers to "mini-theories of second-language learning."

In an investigation of learners' beliefs about language learning and strategy use, Wenden (1987) interviewed 25 adults studying in advanced level ESL classes at Columbia University, asking them about the social settings in which they used English and the learning activities they used. She found that these language learners often used learning strategies consistent with their beliefs about language learning. Fourteen of these students reported specific beliefs about the best way to learn a language. She classified these learners' reported beliefs into three major categories: those that valued using the language naturally, those that valued formal learning about grammar and vocabulary, and those that valued the role of personal factors such as emotions, aptitude, and self-concept.

In order to identify language learners' beliefs in a systematic way, Horwitz (1983) developed the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). The BALLI assesses learners' beliefs in five areas: "foreign language aptitude, the difficulty of language learning, the nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies, and motivations" (Horwitz, 1987, p. 121). This instrument has been used to identify beliefs about language learning held by prospective teachers in a foreign language methods course (Horwitz, 1985), ESL students (Horwitz, 1987), and beginning university foreign language students

(Horwitz, 1988). It has also been used by Yang (1992) for university students learning English in Taiwan, and by G. Park (1995) for university students learning English in Korea.

Other studies exist which contain references specifically to Koreans' beliefs about language learning. For example, W. Park (1981) found in a survey of 478 high school students that 72 percent of them studied English in order to enter a good university or get a good job, while nine percent had no particular reason for studying English. He also found that 75 percent of the students believed that learning English means learning to translate and to understand English grammar.

In a study of American ESL teachers and their students, McCargar (1993) found several differences between the expectations of teacher and student role held by the teachers and those held by students from eight different countries. One difference was that whereas the American teachers tended to disagree with the statement that "language teachers should correct every student error," the Korean students (in fact all student groups except the Japanese) strongly agreed with this statement. However, the Korean students agreed with the teachers that "language teachers should work with small groups of students during class" (p. 198). Regarding another item stating that students should "not make mistakes in answering questions," the teachers clearly disagreed, whereas the Korean students mildly agreed (p. 199).

Since learners' beliefs about language learning may be influenced by their cultural backgrounds and previous experiences (Horwitz, 1987), the purpose of the present study was to identify the beliefs about language learning of a group of university students in Korea, and compare the results with those of previous studies of different groups of learners. Specifically, the present study explores the following research questions:

1. What beliefs do Korean EFL students have about language learning?
2. How do these beliefs compare to those in previous studies of American foreign language students and other ESL/EFL students?
3. Are beliefs about language learning related to background factors such as sex, major, and living abroad?

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The subjects of this study were 204 students in required English classes at Yonsei University in Seoul, Korea, in the spring semester 1994. Their majors were premed (138) and English language and literature (66). The male-female ratio was 131:70 (3 unknown). The majority of the subjects were freshmen (193), with four sophomores, two juniors, one senior, and four unknown. The subjects ranged in age from 18 to 29, with an average age of 19.5. Twenty-nine subjects (14%) had traveled to an English-speaking country, including fifteen (7%) who had lived there for one year or more. The teachers were all foreign native speakers of English, and the classes were taught only in English.

Materials

The questionnaire used in this study consisted of two measures: The Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI, Horwitz, 1983, 1987) and a background

questionnaire. Open-ended questions were added in order to discover any additional beliefs experienced by the subjects, as well as any difficulties the subjects had in answering the questionnaire. These instruments were slightly adapted to the Korean context, and translated into Korean (see Table 1 and Appendix).

Procedures

The questionnaires were administered by the researcher in April 1994 to 204 university students in five English classes, with the cooperation of the English instructors. A cover letter was also included.

Data Analysis

The data in this study were analyzed as follows.

1. Quantitative Analysis

The quantitative analysis of the data was performed using SPSS for MS Windows Release 6.0, as follows:

1. To summarize the students' background information and responses to the BALLI items, frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations were computed for each item.

2. Principal-component analysis and factor analysis were computed on the BALLI scores. The former was used to obtain estimates of the initial factors and to determine the number of factors which represent the data. Then the factor analysis was used to discern the underlying factors for the BALLI scores.

3. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to investigate the effects of the background variables, sex, major, and living abroad, on beliefs. Post hoc analysis was used to indicate which variables caused significant differences.

2. Other Analyses

1. The subjects' responses to the open-ended questions which were added to the BALLI were categorized and summarized.

2. The results of the BALLI were compared with the results of previous studies of American foreign language students and other ESL or EFL students.

RESULTS

The major findings of this study are summarized below.

Beliefs About Language Learning

Descriptive statistics were computed on the students' responses to the items in the BALLI. Table 1 presents the frequencies of response (in percentage), means, and standard deviations for the 36 items in the BALLI.

Table 1. Frequencies of Response (in %), Means, and Standard Deviations for the BALLI Items

Item	1* (SD	2 D	3 N	4 A	5 SA)	Mean	SD
1. It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.	6**	8	8	38	40	3.98	1.16

2. Some people are born with a special ability for learning foreign languages.	5	8	27	38	22	3.64	1.07
3. Some languages are easier to learn than others.	6	9	23	37	26	3.68	1.13
4. English is: (1) a very difficult language; (2) a difficult language; (3) a language of medium difficulty; (4) an easy language; (5) a very easy language.	6	39	41	13	1	2.64	0.82
5. I believe that I will learn to speak English very well.	6	11	24	34	25	3.62	1.15
6. Koreans are good at learning foreign languages.	7	40	26	23	4	2.77	1.02
7. It is important to speak English with an excellent pronunciation.	3	9	7	34	47	4.13	1.07
Item	**1 (SD**	**2 D**	**3 N**	**4 A**	**5 SA)**	**Mean**	**SD**
8. It is necessary to know about English-speaking cultures in order to speak English well.	2	3	11	32	53	4.32	0.88
9. You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly.	71	22	3	3	3	1.45	0.87
10. It is easier for someone who already speaks a foreign language to learn another one.	4	6	20	45	25	3.80	1.07
11. People who are good at mathematics or science are not good at learning foreign languages.	37	35	16	9	3	2.05	1.08
12. It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country.	3	3	5	25	65	4.46	0.93
13. I enjoy practicing English with people who speak English as a native language.	27	17	23	16	18	2.81	1.44
14. It's O.K. to guess if you don't know a word in English.	3	3	21	43	30	3.95	0.95
15. If someone spent one hour a day learning a language, how long would it take them to speak the language fluently: (1) less than a year; (2) 1-2 years; (3) 3-5 years; (4) 5-10 years; (5) You can't learn a language in 1 hour a day.	1	10	44	32	14	3.49	0.87
16. I have a special ability for learning foreign languages.	26	29	28	12	5	2.43	1.15
17. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary words.	5	23	30	32	10	3.20	1.06
18. It is important to repeat and practice a lot.	2	0	5	24	70	4.61	0.72
19. Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.	31	25	23	16	5	2.40	1.23
20. Koreans feel that it is important to speak English well.	4	6	12	42	36	4.01	1.04
21. I feel timid speaking English with other people.	14	22	23	21	20	3.12	1.33
22. If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.	37	25	19	13	6	2.26	1.26
23. The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning the grammar.	36	45	15	3	0	1.86	0.80

24. I would like to learn English so that I can better understand people who speak English as a native language.	28	38	20	10	3	2.23	1.08
25. It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.	40	29	13	8	9	2.16	1.28
26. It is important to practice with cassettes or video tapes.	3	16	34	31	17	3.44	1.02
27. Learning a foreign language is different than learning other academic subjects.	3	9	20	44	24	3.78	1.00
Item	**1* (SD**	**2 D**	**3 N**	**4 A**	**5 SA)**	**Mean**	**SD**
28. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from Korean to English.	23	39	20	14	4	2.37	1.11
29. The most important part of learning English is learning how to translate from English to Korean.	28	43	18	9	2	2.14	1.00
30. If I learn English very well, I will have better opportunities for a good job.	1	5	20	46	28	3.95	0.88
32. I want to learn to speak English well.	0	2	4	12	82	4.75	0.62
33. I would like to get to know people who speak English as a native language.	2	5	14	25	55	4.27	1.00
34. Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language well.	6	17	27	33	17	3.38	1.13
35. It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand (listen to) it.	6	12	22	37	23	3.57	1.15
36. Language learning involves a lot of memorization.	2	6	18	41	33	3.98	0.95

Notes:

*1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neither agree nor disagree; 4=agree; 5 strongly agree

**Percentages in this table have been rounded to the nearest whole number, and thus may not add to 100.

The last two items of the BALLI (items 37 and 38) were open-ended questions designed to give the subjects the opportunity to respond freely. Item 37 asked if the subjects had any additional ideas about learning English, while item 38 asked if any of the preceding questions were unclear or confusing.

Regarding beliefs about language learning (item 37), fifty-four subjects commented that they believe speaking and listening are more important than reading, writing, and grammar, and that they want more speaking and listening in their English class. Twenty-five subjects also commented that there are too many students in each class, and twenty wanted more opportunities to participate in class. In addition, sixteen wanted more opportunities to have conversations with native speakers of English, and thirteen liked having a native-speaking English teacher. Fourteen also thought that the class was too formal and would like more innovative teaching methods.

Item 38 asked whether any of the preceding items were unclear or confusing. While the majority of the subjects had no comment on this question, some thought there were overlapping items on the questionnaire. Regarding item 15 about how long it takes to learn a language, five subjects commented that it depends on the situation or the method of study. Four subjects were confused because there were

two items about translation (item 28: Korean to English; item 29: English to Korean).

According to the responses to the BALLI summarized above, most of the Korean university students in this study seem to have strong motivations to learn English, but not in order to get to know people who speak it. It seems that their motivation is more instrumental than integrative. They believe that culture is important in language learning, but that grammar is not. They support the strategies of repeating and practicing, pronunciation, and guessing, and believe that it is okay to make mistakes, but they feel timid and uncomfortable speaking English. They are optimistic about learning English, but believe that it is difficult, especially in speaking, and takes time. They also believe that anyone can learn a language, but that some have a special ability, which they may feel they personally do not have.

A factor analysis of the BALLI found five factors, which appear to represent the following areas: the value and nature of learning English, self-efficacy/confidence in speaking, the importance of correctness/formal learning, ease of learning English, and motivational factors. These factors will be discussed later in this paper.

Comparisons With Beliefs of Other Groups

The responses of the Korean EFL students in this study to the BALLI were compared with those of international ESL students in the United States (Horwitz, 1987), American students of foreign languages (Horwitz, 1988), Chinese EFL students (Yang, 1992), and Korean EFL students (Park, 1995). The ESL students (Horwitz, 1987) appeared to have more confidence in their ability to learn English, more confidence and desire to speak English with native speakers, and more integrative motivation than the Korean EFL students in this study.

In comparison with the American foreign language students (Horwitz, 1988), the Korean EFL students seemed less confident of their personal language learning ability, but more confident of the ability of their countrymen to learn languages. The Koreans were more supportive of the roles of culture and pronunciation in language learning, and less supportive of the roles of grammar and correctness. In addition, the Koreans had more instrumental reasons to learn English than the Americans.

More similarities existed between the Chinese (Yang, 1992) and Korean EFL students, perhaps because of their similar cultures, English education systems, and the role of English in both countries. However, the Chinese students appeared to have a greater confidence in their ability to learn English than the Korean students. This could be related to differences in the learning environments in the two countries, cultural differences, or differences between the Chinese and Korean languages.

Finally, the results of this study were quite similar to those of Park (1995), whose subjects were also Korean university students learning EFL. However, one difference was that although Park's subjects tended to believe that English is more difficult than did those in the current study, more of his subjects agreed that they would learn to speak English well. In addition, more students in the present study felt that translation is not important, and reported that they did not enjoy practicing English with native speakers nor did they want to learn English for the purpose of getting to know native speakers. Since the majority of Park's subjects were male (91%), and since they had different majors (70% engineering and 30%

humanities/social science) from those in the current study, these factors may have led to differences in their beliefs about language learning.

Influence of Background Variables

Multivariate analysis of variance was used to test for the influence of background variables on the BALLI factors in order to answer the third research question: "Are beliefs about language learning related to background factors such as sex, major, and living abroad?"

For the comparison between premed and English majors, Wilks' lambda was significant at $p < .05$, indicating that the students' majors made a significant difference in their beliefs about language learning. Post hoc ANOVAs found that English majors had significantly higher means than premed majors in both self-efficacy/confidence in speaking ($p < .05$) and motivation for learning English ($p < .01$). Wilks' lambda was also significant at $p < .001$ for the comparison between those who had lived in an English-speaking country for at least one year and those who had not. Post hoc ANOVAs found that the students who had lived abroad had significantly higher means in self-efficacy/confidence in speaking than those who had not ($p < .01$).

DISCUSSION

This section will discuss the results of this study according to the framework of the objectives of this study.

Beliefs About Language Learning

The factor analysis of the BALLI produced five factors: (1) the value and nature of learning English, (2) self-efficacy/confidence in speaking, (3) the importance of correctness/formal learning, (4) the ease of learning English, and (5) motivational factors. Each of these factors is discussed below in relation to relevant research. (The items in parentheses are those that loaded at .40 or above on the factor.)

1. Value and nature of learning English
(BALLI items 3, 7, 8, 12, 18, 20)

The subjects in this study tended to strongly agree that "Koreans feel that it is important to speak English well." This indicates the high value that Koreans place on English proficiency.

Pintrich's (1989; Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990) model of motivation emphasizes the role of value beliefs, including importance, interest, and utility. Pintrich & DeGroot (1990) found that students who believed that their school work was interesting and important were more cognitively engaged, self-regulating, and persistent in their academic work. In addition, Meece et al. (1990) found that "students who assigned more importance to achievement in mathematics reported less math anxiety" (p. 68).

If these findings in educational psychology can be applied to the area of second language learning, the fact that Koreans highly value English proficiency may increase their motivation and possibly even help to lower their anxiety about learning English.

In Factor 1, the majority of the subjects in this study also highly valued

certain aspects of the nature of learning English, such as pronunciation, repeating and practicing, and learning about English-speaking cultures. In the field of second language acquisition, Wenden (1987) found that language learners often used learning strategies consistent with their beliefs about what aspects of language learning are most important (using the language naturally, formal learning about grammar and vocabulary, or personal factors). Therefore, the aspects of language learning that these subjects value will probably affect the strategies that they use. For example, those who value learning about English-speaking cultures may try to travel to an English-speaking country if possible, or get to know native English speakers living in Korea. However, if these beliefs are unrealistic, they could also lead to frustration and anxiety. For example, since pronunciation seems to be so difficult to master in adulthood (Scovel, 1988), language learners who believe that it is important to speak with an excellent pronunciation may be disappointed.

2. Self-efficacy/confidence in speaking
(BALLI items 13, 16, 24, 35, 36)

The subjects in this study tended to disagree (55%) with the statement, "I have a special ability for learning foreign languages," and to agree (60%) with the statement, "It is easier to read and write English than to speak and understand it." These responses indicate that many of these Korean students are not confident about their language learning ability, particularly in the areas of speaking and listening. Bandura (1982, 1986) claims that self-efficacy can influence task choice, effort and persistence, helpful or debilitating thought patterns, and affective reactions. In a study of seventh grade students, Pintrich and DeGroot (1990) found that test anxiety was negatively related to self-efficacy beliefs. Similarly, Truitt (under review) has found a strong negative correlation between this factor of self-efficacy and foreign language anxiety.

In Factor 2, the subjects also tended to disagree with statements like "I enjoy practicing English with people who speak English as a native language" (44%), and "I would like to learn English so that I can better understand people who speak English as a native language" (66%). These responses show that in spite of their strong belief that knowledge about culture is important, many students do not enjoy speaking English with native speakers, and do not seem to have an integrative motivation for learning English. Perhaps because of their lack of self-confidence in their English ability, they may be afraid to try to talk with native speakers, even though they believe it would help them to learn. In fact, Yang (1992) found a relationship between Taiwanese EFL learners' self-efficacy about learning English and their use of learning strategies, particularly the use of functional practice strategies which involve "actively seeking or creating opportunities to use or practice English functionally" (p. 93).

3. Importance of correctness/formal learning
(BALLI items 9, 17, 22, 23, 29, 31)

The subjects in this study tended to believe that the most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary (42%), rather than translation (11%) or grammar (3%). Thus, despite the dominance of the grammar-translation teaching methodology used in Korea, most of these students believed that grammar and translation are not important. Perhaps they feel this way because they have

studied English for so long using this method, but do not feel that it has been effective. In fact, many students expressed such opinions in answer to an open-ended question asking if they had any additional ideas about learning English.

Another interesting finding in this factor is that the subjects in this study overwhelmingly disagreed with the statements, "You shouldn't say anything in English until you can say it correctly" (93%), and "If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on" (62%). Thus, in spite of the fact that they tended to have low self-efficacy about their English ability and not to enjoy practicing English with native speakers, many Koreans actually believe that it is okay to make mistakes in speaking English. Encouraging students to put this belief more into action might help them to enjoy practicing English with native speakers without fear.

4. Ease of learning English (BALLI items 2, 4, 5, 19, 34)

The subjects in this study tended to believe that English is very difficult (6%), difficult (39%), or of medium difficulty (41%). However, 50 percent believed that everyone can learn to speak a foreign language well, and 59 percent agreed that "I believe that I will learn to speak English very well." Thus, although they do not believe that they have a special ability for language learning, the majority of these subjects believe that they will succeed. This belief may help increase their motivation to learn, and lower their anxiety. In fact, Truitt (under review) also found a strong negative correlation between this factor and foreign language anxiety.

5. Motivational factors (BALLI items 30, 32, 33)

These subjects scored quite high in motivational factors. They overwhelmingly agreed that they want to learn English well (94%) and that English ability will give them better job opportunities (74%). Thus, these students seem to have strong instrumental reasons for learning English. In addition, although the majority disagreed in Factor 2 that they wanted to learn English so that they could better understand people who speak English as a native language, 80 percent agreed that they would like to get to know people who speak English as a native language. In other words, it seems that although understanding native speakers is not their main purpose for learning English, most of these students would like to get to know English speakers along the way.

In summary, it is apparent that although many of these students have beliefs which may be helpful for language learning, such as a strong desire to learn and a belief that it is okay to make mistakes, they may have difficulty putting these beliefs into practice because of other beliefs such as a lack of self-confidence about their language learning ability. As Horwitz (1987) suggests, one role of teachers can be to "confront erroneous beliefs with new information" (p. 126), and to help students to develop more effective strategies based on helpful beliefs about language learning.

Comparisons With Beliefs of Other Groups

As summarized above, the beliefs about language learning of the subjects in this study were compared with those found in previous studies of learners from different cultural backgrounds and experiences. For example, in comparison with the American students in Horwitz (1988), the Koreans in this study seemed less

confident of their personal language learning ability, but more confident of the ability of their countrymen to learn languages. In addition, the Koreans appeared to have more instrumental reasons for learning English than the Americans did. More similarities existed between the Chinese (Yang, 1992) and Korean EFL students, but the Chinese students appeared to have a greater confidence in their ability to learn English than the Korean students. These differences imply that although individual differences in beliefs about language learning are great, some beliefs may be similar among learners from the same culture. Thus, as suggested by Horwitz (1987), cultural background may influence beliefs about language learning.

Other evidence suggests that previous experiences may also influence language learning (Horwitz, 1987). For example, ESL students living in the United States (Horwitz, 1987) appeared to have more confidence in their ability to learn English, more confidence and desire to speak English with native speakers, and more integrative motivation than the Korean EFL students in this study. In addition, this study found that the Korean EFL students who had lived in an English-speaking country had significantly higher means in self-efficacy/confidence in speaking than those who had not ($p < .01$). These results suggest that previous experiences, such as living in an English-speaking country, can have an influence on learners' beliefs about language learning.

Comparison of the beliefs about language learning of the Korean subjects in this study with those in Park's (1995) study show that even among learners from the same culture and with similar previous experiences, differences exist. One difference was that although Park's subjects tended to believe that English is more difficult than did those in the current study, more of his subjects agreed that they would learn to speak English well. In addition, more students in the present study felt that translation is not important, and reported that they did not enjoy practicing English with native speakers nor did they want to learn English for the purpose of getting to know native speakers. Since the majority of Park's subjects were male (91%), and since they had different majors (70% engineering and 30% humanities/social science) from those in the current study, these factors may have led to differences in their beliefs about language learning.

Influence of Background Variables

As discussed above, several background variables were related to the beliefs about language learning of the subjects in this study. For example, English majors had significantly higher means than premed majors in both self-efficacy/confidence in speaking and motivation for learning English. Similarly, Yang (1992) found that foreign language majors had significantly higher means on the factor "Beliefs About Foreign Language Aptitude" than other majors.

Another large significant difference was found in the current study between those who had lived in an English-speaking country for at least one year and those who had not. The students who had lived abroad had significantly higher means in self-efficacy/confidence in speaking than those who had not. In a similar way, ESL students living in the United States (Horwitz, 1987) appeared to have more confidence in their ability to learn English, more confidence and desire to speak English with native speakers, and more integrative motivation than the Korean EFL students in this study.

These findings indicate that background factors such as major and previous

experiences such as living in an English-speaking country may have an effect on learners' beliefs about language learning. This supports Horwitz's (1987) claim that learners' beliefs may be influenced by previous experiences.

LIMITATIONS

This study is based on a sample of 204 students at Yonsei University, majoring in premed or English. Since Yonsei is a high-level university, and premed and English are somewhat difficult majors to enter, these subjects may not represent the average Korean university student. However, with some cautions, it is expected that these results may apply to other Korean university students, and to those in countries with similar cultures and EFL instructional methods, such as Japan and Taiwan.

CONCLUSION

Finding out what Korean EFL students' beliefs about language learning are, and how they may differ from those of American foreign language students and other ESL and EFL students, may increase understanding of differences in the ways Koreans go about language learning. This may help teachers to better understand and meet their students' expectations for their English class. Since evidence exists that beliefs about language learning may influence students' learning strategies (Wenden, 1987; Yang, 1992), knowledge of learners' beliefs may also help to explain why Korean students use the strategies that they do.

Beliefs about language learning have also been considered as a factor which may influence foreign language anxiety (Horwitz, 1987; Young, 1991). Learner beliefs about language learning are important to consider because they may be among the most accessible to change by the learner (Horwitz, 1987). For example, Horwitz (1987) states from her experience that many anxious language learners believe that they are supposed to understand every word in their foreign language class. When it is explained to them that this is not expected or necessary, they begin to relax. Young (1991) adds that unrealistic beliefs about the importance of correctness in grammar or pronunciation, or about the time it takes to learn a foreign language, can also lead to frustration and anxiety. Therefore, knowledge of Korean students' beliefs about language learning may also help in understanding and helping to reduce their foreign language anxiety levels.

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APPENDIX
Background Questionnaire
(English Version)

The questions below are for research purposes only, and your individual answers will not be made available to anyone. Please answer the following questions or check the proper answers.

1. Your sex: _____ Male _____ Female

2. Your age: _____ years old

3. Your major: _____

4. Year of study: _____

5. Why are you taking this English course? (Please choose one or two most important reasons for you.)
   _____ I am interested in the English language.
   _____ I am interested in English-speaking cultures.
   _____ It is required for my major.
   _____ It is easy.
   _____ I want to get to know English-speaking foreigners.
   _____ I want to study in an English-speaking country.
   _____ I will need it in order to get a good job.
   _____ I will need to use it in my job.
   _____ I want to use it for travel.
   _____ Other: _____

6. How many years have you studied English in college?
   _____

7. How many years have you studied English in a private institute or with a tutor?
   _____

8. How many years have you had a native-speaking English teacher?
   _____

9. Have you ever traveled to or lived in an English-speaking country?
   _____ Yes
   _____ No

   If yes, what country? _____
   How long were you there? _____

10. How many native English-speaking friends or acquaintances have you known?

    _____

    If 1 or more, how often did you speak English with this person?
    _____ rarely
    _____ sometimes
    _____ often

11. How often do you watch TV or movies or listen to the radio in English (without looking at the Korean subtitles)?
    _____ never
    _____ less than once a month
    _____ 1 to 3 times a month
    _____ once a week
    _____ more than once a week

12. What was your score on the English test of the college entrance exam?

    _____

13. What grade do you expect to receive in this English course?

    _____

Motivation as a Two-Sided Coin: Motivational Differences Between College-Level Chinese and Japanese Learners of EFL

BILL TEWELES

Forty freshmen and sophomores at two national universities in Mainland China and Japan responded to a 40-point attitudinal questionnaire and 6-point follow-up motivational intensity scale in an effort to determine relative levels of motivation. While a solid majority of students from both universities showed high motivation on the former (87.5% of the Japanese freshmen and sophomores and 95% of the Chinese freshmen and sophomores), the backup motivational intensity scale, designed to tap a more active orientation to the target language (English), yielded a more modest 50.6% and 67.8% positive response on the part of the Japanese and Mandarin-speaking respondents. In addition to showing a somewhat higher instrumental motivation to learn English, it is noteworthy that the Mandarin-speaking freshmen and sophomores also outperformed Japanese college learners of similar age and background on a variety of tests focusing on points of syntax of near-equal difficulty for both language groups. Level of motivation was not shown to correlate highly with proficiency regardless of test-type, which parallels findings by Oller, Hudson, and Liu (1977) and Chihara and Oller (1978) that attitude and language proficiency are not always closely associated.

INTRODUCTION

A one-year matched group study conducted at Hunan University, a large national university in Changsha, Hunan Province, Peoples Republic of China and Okayama (National) University in Okayama City, Japan revealed that there are some differences between the levels of "instrumental" as opposed to "integrative" motivation reported by two groups of freshmen and sophomores at both universities. Based on the first of a pair of attitudinal questionnaires, a slight leaning toward "instrumental" motivation was shown by the Mandarin-speaking freshmen and sophomores, with their Japanese-speaking counterparts being slightly more inclined toward "integrative" motivational indicators.[1] Nevertheless, when a follow-up "motivational intensity scale" based on the one designed by Gardner and Lambert (1972) is taken into consideration, a more negative or distant attitude toward English is shown on the part of the Japanese freshmen and sophomores.

This seems to confirm findings by Benson (1991), who in surveying over 300 college freshmen in the same region of Japan, found that "personal" motivation was a more appropriate way to gauge interest in and application to the second

[1]In the former case, the target language is seen as being potentially useful, but is often largely academic in its treatment and use and may only have an indirect effect on the learner outside the classroom, whereas in the latter, it may take on a communicative role that directly affects the learner in everyday life.

language (in this case, English). Further statistical analysis shows there to be a weak-to-moderate correlation between motivation level (as shown on the first Likert-scale centered attitudinal questionnaire) and proficiency level shown on a battery of tests taken by both groups of EFL learners at Hunan University and Okayama University. These findings suggest that the importance of a positive attitude toward the target language (or target language-speaking community) is not as important as the presentation of a strong commitment to practice and will to actually use the language in question.

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

Two Groups of Freshmen (n=10) and two Groups of Sophomores (n=10) at Hunan University (18 Females and 2 Males in the Freshman Group and 13 Females and 7 Males in the Sophomore Group), and two Groups of Freshmen (n=10) and two Groups of Sophomores (n=10) at Okayama University (11 Females and 9 Males in the Freshman Group and 18 Females and 2 Males in the Sophomore Group) participated in this study.

Procedures

All students who had indicated on a consent agreement that they would participate in a comparative study of EFL learning being conducted in China and Japan and be willing to take a series of written tests were asked on the second day of testing to complete a two-part "Attitudinal Questionnaire." The purpose of this was twofold; one was an attempt to gauge via 5-point Likert scale whether students were "instrumentally" or "integratively" motivated. Eight of the ten statements (evenly divided between instrumental and integrative-type assessments of English) on this first questionnaire were drawn from Gardner and Lambert (1972) and were worth a total of 40 points. An additional yes/no question (#7) asked if the student was mainly taking English in order to gain college course credit. A final open question (#10) gave students a chance to elaborate on any of the reasons given or other personal reasons for learning English (see Appendix A). A questionnaire made up of six additional yes/no questions was included as a follow-up to the first questionnaire. These questions were more closely directed to the individual English language learner, and were designed as a check on how "active" or "personally committed" the particular learner was to the target language (i.e., outside the classroom). The numerical difference between "yes" and "no" responses on the second questionnaire was also intended to help determine assignment to a "HIGH" or "LOW" motivation level, thirty-two points (70%) or higher on both questionnaires signifying "HI MOtivation." Similarly, a respondent earning twenty-eight points or fewer on the initial questionnaire and not scoring four or more points on the second part would be considered "LO MOtivation.

The Role of Motivation in the Two Different EFL Contexts Involved

Gardner and Lambert's (1972) studies in North America during the late 1950's and 1960's brought the special role of attitude and motivation into the second language acquisition research fold. In addition to bringing up the important distinction between "instrumental" and "integrative" orientations to a target

language and to the target culture which it represents, their research helped substantiate the key role of the affective domain associated with "integrative motivation." [2] Somewhat apart from their original intention of showing how English was helping Asian nations "become an integral part of a worldwide community" (ibid., p. 122), their study on ESL in the Philippines has helped substantiate the "instrumental" role that English appears to have so strongly assumed in Asia. Since then, a number of linguists and researchers (Fu, 1975; Kachru, 1977; Chihara and Oller, 1978; Young, 1982; Shaw et al., 1983) have focused on other ESL and EFL contexts in Asia and noted the particularly strong link between an instrumental motive and proficiency in English, mostly among adolescent or adult learners.

The People's Republic of China and Japan present particularly challenging and complex EFL settings in this regard. English clearly has a dual function in both countries; as a language that is broadly linked to external knowledge and advanced technology, it is widely sought as a means of bringing new information into the home culture. In addition to this perception of English being a window unto the Western world of art, science and technology, many in China and Japan view their own languages as being nearly impossible for non-native speakers to learn (Reischauer, 1977). This feeling that English is a *necessity* for wider communication in today's world is perhaps the closest thing to a consensus that exists between the two vis a vis English language instruction. A remark made by a freshman informant from Okayama University (in Japanese) on the second attitude questionnaire may be considered exemplary here:

> *"Genzai no kokusai shakai no naka de hitsuyoo to sarete iru kara."*
> (English) has become a necessity in today's modern society.

A sophomore at Hunan University added another prevailing view:

> "English is a useful communicational [sic] tool to study advanced Western technique."

Aside from the functional role that English plays in the mostly academic context that a national university represents, one needs to consider the image and influence of English on both the developing and developed socioeconomic structures that China and Japan represent. Visiting the People's Republic in the Fall of 1974 with an entourage of eminent linguistic scholars, it was noted in Lehmann (1975) that the most commonly expressed motivation for studying English was "to serve the revolution" (p. 76). Whether this can be considered "instrumental" or "integrative" motivation is beside the point here; suffice it to say that twenty years later, in the heart of Hunan Province where Chairman Mao was born, raised and educated, such pronouncements are rarely heard (or expected) in English class. As Berendt (1990) has documented in describing the multi-faceted role of English in today's China, proficiency in English is increasingly seen as a "passport" to opportunity-- a means of diversifying one's livelihood and increasing one's pay.

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[2]The usage of a 70% or higher cutoff is consistent with collegiate marking standards in both Mainland China and Japan, whereby 70% is considered indicative of "good" performance.

and also essential to seeking educational and economic opportunities overseas. Importantly, it is also felt that English plays a major role in the country's modernization, especially in the areas of science and technology.

The Japanese, to a greater extent, have sought to incorporate English vocabulary into their own language through development of a syllabary, or "katakana," designed to mark words or phrases of foreign origin. (For the Chinese, who have shown that they prefer to let separate linguistic entities be seen and treated as such, there is no such ready-made device, although a few "loan words" have been admitted into the language and are identifiable, although normally "spelled out" with Chinese ideographs). Visitors to Japan often marvel at the variety of ways and means English plants itself onto the urban landscape.[3] Its extensive appearance in the media and expression in fashion is a fact of life in most Japanese cities today.

In contrast, English is used more sparingly in Mainland China; while pressures to use more English in advertising exist, it is rarely used in the decorative sense there that it is in Japan. It is evident, too, that these two ancient cultures, which have influenced each other so greatly over the past several centuries, are somewhat resistant to the forces of Westernization, and one should be cautious about overstating the role of any one language. In spite of the high literacy levels and general recognition of the importance of English in Japan, the average Japanese "has little incentive to master English or any other foreign language" (Hansen, 1985, p. 147). And in China, many feel that Mandarin, as it is used by the most people in the world, should be considered as highly as English as a choice for international language. A debate on this subject in an Oral English class observed by this researcher last year raised many convincing arguments along this line, students arguing for Mandarin's grammatical simplicity and richness of semantic expression. While similar arguments might be raised in favor of other languages (the relative ease of pronouncing Japanese compared to either English or Mandarin comes to mind), the current prestige of English worldwide and its uncontested role in international business, communications and diplomacy remain.

More crucial than any of these considerations for the average Japanese or Chinese citizen, perhaps, is the pervasive role English plays in the entrance examination and educational systems of each country. As many as 90% in some urban centers of China (Ross, 1993) and some 99% of Japanese youth (Maher, 1984, LoCastro, 1990) study English in middle or high school for mostly test-related reasons. The tremendous social pressures involved and difficulty of the entrance examinations themselves is well-chronicled (Reischauer 1977; Cambridge Encyclopedia of Japan, Newsweek 1/12/87 et al.). Crucial to the discussion here, too, is the (after)effect of the entrance examination system on the college undergraduate. As Berwick and Ross (1989) attest, the psychological impact of these exams is considerable and creates a "burnout" effect in some cases. There is also much controversy in Japan over the content of the English examinations themselves (Buck, 1988; LoCastro, 1990) and whether what the students are being tested on reflects their true ability or needs, especially in communicative skills. For the most part, at least on the Joint Achievement Test (JAT) given to determine eligibility to

[3]An article entitled "All Tongue-Tied" in the August 8, 1987 edition of Asiaweek noted that "A touch of English always looks nice" to many Japanese (p. 26).

take the entrance examinations offered by individual national universities in Japan, knowledge of English grammatical structure and ability to translate from English into the first language determines who passes. While the actual content of the English portion of the national entrance examinations are a subject of less controversy in China, the stakes involved are perhaps even higher as entrance exams are only offered on a once-a-year basis. Even though the number of universities being built in the municipal and private sector is increasing in both countries, the prestige attached and advantages of attending a national university are considerable.

Given the particular weight of English for testing purposes in both China and Japan, it is not surprising that of the fifty-two informants who responded to an "extra" (i.e., not entered into the "integrative" vs. "instrumental" motivation score count assigned) question on whether English should be required in high school, seventeen (85%) from Okayama University "agreed," while two were "not sure" and only one "disagreed." At Hunan University, thirty students (93.75%) agreed, one was "not sure," and one "disagreed."

A second question on the first attitudinal questionnaire that was also not figured into the overall motivational score asked whether the student was "taking English mainly to gain course credit." Looking at the breakdown of responses given by the forty students in each of the profiled groups, there was a considerably greater attitudinal difference shown herein than for the previous question on English's importance in the high school curriculum.

Q:7 "I am taking English mainly to gain college course credit."

OKAYAMA UNIV. SOPHS. (n=20)	YES	15	NO	5	TOTAL = 75% YES
OKAYAMA UNIV. FROSH (n=20)	YES	12	NO	8	TOTAL = 60% YES
HUNAN UNIV. SOPHS (n=20)	YES	0	NO	20	TOTAL =100% NO
HUNAN UNIV. FROSH (n=20; *one freshman did not respond)	YES	0	NO	19	TOTAL =95% NO*

It is noteworthy that while 67.5% of the Japanese students responded "negatively" to this question (a "yes" answer indicating that they were only taking English to get course credit and would not bother to take it otherwise), all of the Chinese students replied "affirmatively." The unanimity of the Chinese students on this question underlines the positive response they showed on the first (eight question) attitudinal questionnaire as a whole. Hunan University students compiled an average of 33.45 instrumental motivation points out of 40, or 83.625%, and an integrative mean score of 32.85 out of 40, or 82.125%. That nearly three-fourths of the Okayama University students indicated having little academic interest in English aside from its satisfying a graduation requirement calls into question or compromises the generally high mean scores they produced on the first attitudinal questionnaire. On this, Okayama University students averaged 29.95 instrumental motivation points of out of 40, or 74.875%, and had an integrative mean score of 31.65 out of 40, or 79.125%. In spite of the fact that an abbreviated

version of Gardner and Lambert's (1972) Attitude and Motivational Index was used, it is noteworthy, but not surprising that Japanese students tended to score higher on integrative indicators than did the Chinese informants. Berwick and Ross (1989) and Benson (1991) both elaborated on the considerable fall-off in "instrumental" interest (particularly in freshman learners of English) once the college entrance examination was history. Responses to a more elaborate "Supplementary Questionnaire" (Appendix C) taken by a class of 29 juniors at Kyoto University of Foreign Studies in the spring of 1994 also support Benson's view that a more "personal" motivation begins to take hold of the Japanese undergraduate once "instrumental motivation" has run its course. In it, an equally favorable view of English to that held by 23 of the sophomore group at Hunan University in various skill areas was shown, ranging from a high mean score of 4.1724 (on a Likert scale of five) on pronunciation to a "low" of 3.1724 on vocabulary. While not designed to directly tap into considerations of instrumental and integrative motivation, the questionnaire was able to bring out both positive and negative views toward the target language and culture as well as elicit the following examples of "personal motivation."

Sample Responses by Juniors at Kyoto University of Foreign Studies to Supplementary Questionnaire

Q:1 What topics do you feel comfortable using English to talk about?
"Hobby, friendship, (and) relationship between men and women"
"Music, family, myself"

Q:3 What do you like most about English as a second language?
"It's my dream to go abroad and speak with foreigner."
"It's more informal than my native language."
"I can be another person and freely express myself."
"It allows you to communicate with people from countries other than English-speaking countries."

Q:6 What do you like most about English-speaking people?
"Their speech...is great with some jokes which draws the audience within."

Other responses indicated a considerable level of complexity, or decidedly mixed attitudes toward the subject language and culture.

Q:6 What do you like most about English-speaking people?
"They are friendly and kind."

(same respondent)
Q:7 "What do you dislike most about them?
"They are insensitive, generally, I think."

DISCUSSION

As Tables 1, 2, 3 and 4 below reveal, all four groups of freshmen and sophomores at Okayama and Hunan Universities showed relatively high levels of motivation (i.e., 32+ points) on the first questionnaire, with a slight preference for Integrative Motivational indicators shown by both Japanese groups and a preference for Instrumental Motivational indicators shown by both Chinese groups.

Table 1. Responses of Freshman Groups at Okayama University

OKAYAMA UNIVERSITY STUDENT NO.	TOTAL SCORE HI/LO MOTIV.	INSTRUMENTAL	INTEGRATIVE
1/05-321	32 (+ 4 yes) HI	17	15
2/05-322	31 (+ 5 yes) HI	16	15
3/05-324	27 (+ 4 yes) LO	13	14
4/05-328	34 (+ 4 yes) HI	17	17
5/05-332	28 (+ 3 yes) LO	14	14
6/05-334	32 (+ 4 yes) HI	16	16
7/05-336	31 (+ 4 yes) HI	15	16
8/05-507	30 (+ 3 yes) HI	15	15
9/05-521	33 (+ 4 yes) HI	16	18
10/05-523	31 (+ 3 yes) HI	15	16
n=10 FRESHMEN	8 HI/2 LO MO	ave. 15.4	ave. 15.6

OKAYAMA UNIVERSITY STUDENT NO.	TOTAL SCORE	INSTRUMENTAL	INTEGRATIVE
11/M034	35 (+ 3 yes) HI	19	16
12/M044	32 (+ 4 yes) HI	16	16
13/M049	25 (+ 6 no) LO	10	15
14/M053	21 (+ 6 no) LO	11	10
15/M057	29 (+ 5 no) LO	12	17
16/M061	29 (+ 3 yes) HI	15	14
17/M064	32 (+ 3 yes) HI	15	17
18/M090	28 (+ 5 yes) HI	14	14
19/M095	32 (+ 5 yes) HI	16	16
20/M108	23 (+ 6 no) LO	12	11
n=10 FRESHMEN	6 HI /4 LO MO	ave. 14.0	ave. 14.6

Two Group Total on MOTIVATION MEAN SCORES

Okayama University	INSTRUMENTAL	INTEGRATIVE
•Freshmen (n=20)	14.7	15.1

Table 2. Responses of Sophomore Groups at Okayama University

OKAYAMA UNIVERSITY STUDENT NO.	TOTAL SCORE HI/LO MOTIV.	INSTRUMEN-TAL	INTEGRATIVE
1/05-1	24 (+ 5 no) LO	12	12
2/05-2	37 (+ 3 yes) HI	18	19
3/05-4	25 (+ 5 yes) LO	10	15
4/05-5	36 (+ 5 yes) HI	18	18
5/05-6	31 (+ 4 no) HI	13	18
6/05-15	29 (+ 6 no) LO	15	14
7/05-17	31 (+ 5 no) HI	16	15
8/05-18	30 (+ 4 no) HI	14	16
9/05-19	33 (+ 3 yes) HI	14	19
10/05-21	33 (+ 4 yes) HI	15	18
n=10 SOPHOMORES	7 HI /3 LO MO	ave. 14.5	ave. 16.4

OKAYAMA UNIVERSITY STUDENT NO.	TOTAL SCORE HI/LO MOTIV.	INSTRUMENTAL	INTEGRATIVE
11/05-27	30 (+ 4 no) HI	14	16
12/05-28	32 (+ 4 yes) HI	15	17
13/05-30	36 (+ 6 yes) HI	18	18
14/05-31	33 (+ 4 yes) HI	15	18
15/05-35	31 (+ 4 yes) HI	15	16
16/05-41	37 (+ 5 yes) HI	19	18
17/05-44	30 (+ 4 no) HI	15	15
18/05-45	29 (+ 5 no) LO	15	14
19/05-46	34 (+ 5 yes) HI	17	17
20/05-50	32 (+ 3 yes) HI	17	15
n=10 SOPHOMORES	9 HI /1 LO MO	ave. 16.0	ave. 16.4

Two Group Total on MOTIVATION MEAN SCORES

Okayama University	INSTRUMENTAL	INTEGRATIVE
•Sophomores (n=20)	15.25	16.4

Table 3. Responses of Freshman Groups at Hunan University

HUNAN UNIV. STUDENTS*	TOTAL SCORE HI/LO MOTIV.	INSTRUMENTAL	INTEGRATIVE
1/Catherine	39 (+ 4 yes) HI	20	19
2/Emily	36 (+ 4 yes) HI	19	17
3/Frank	33 (+ 4 yes) HI	15	18
4/Haoping	37 (+ 4 yes) HI	19	18
5/Huying	39 (+ 5 yes) HI	19	20
6/LinDan	31 (+ 4 yes) HI	16	15
7/Shirley	34 (+ 5 yes) HI	16	18
8/Stephanie	30 (+ 6 yes) HI	16	14
9/Sue	35 (+ 3 yes) HI	17	18
10/Xiaoxi	35 (+ 4 yes) HI	19	16
n=10 FRESHMEN	All HI MO on Q's 1-16	ave. 17.6	ave. 17.3

*Names used in place of student numbers by Hunan freshman groups

HUNAN UNIV. STUDENTS	TOTAL SCORE	INSTRUMENTAL	INTEGRATIVE
11/Bing	31 (+ 4 yes) HI	14	17
12/Emmy	39 (+ 3 yes) HI	19	20
13/Fang	36 (+ 3 yes) HI	18	18
14/Julia	30 (+ 3 yes) HI	17	13
15/Lili	34 (+ 4 yes) HI	19	15
16/Lillian	26 (+ 3 yes) LO	11	15
17/May	35 (+ 6 yes) HI	18	17
18/Rocket	32 (+ 4 yes) HI	18	14
19/Sandy	28 (+ 5 yes) HI	14	14
20/Wendy	35 (+ 5 yes) HI	17	18
n=10 FRESHMEN	9 HI /1 LO MO	ave. 16.5	ave. 16.1

Two Group Total on MOTIVATION MEAN SCORES

Hunan University	INSTRUMENTAL	INTEGRATIVE
•Freshmen (n=20)	17.05	16.7

Table 4. Responses of Sophomore Groups at Hunan University

HUNAN UNIV. STUDENT NO.	TOTAL SCORE HI/LO MOTIV.	INSTRUMENTAL	INTEGRATIVE
1/5028	33 (+ 4 yes) HI	16	17
2/5032	32 (+ 4 yes) HI	17	15
3/5033	36 (+ 5 yes) HI	17	19
4/5034	36 (+ 4 yes) HI	18	18
5/5035	29 (+ 3 yes) HI	13	16
6/5037	36 (+ 5 yes) HI	18	18
7/5038	34 (+ 5 yes) HI	18	16
8/5039	39 (+ 5 yes) HI	20	19
9/5040	34 (+ 5 yes) HI	18	16
10/5041	32 (+ 4 yes) HI	16	16
n=10 SOPHOMORES	All HI MO	ave. 17.1	ave. 17.0

HUNAN UNIV. STUDENT NO.	TOTAL SCORE HI/LO MOTIV.	INSTRUMENTAL	INTEGRATIVE
11/5043	38 (+ 4 yes) HI	20	18
12/5044	28 (+ 4 yes) HI	13	15
13/5045	20 (+ 4 no) LO	11	9
14/5047	35 (+ 5 yes) HI	18	17
15/5048	33 (+ 4 yes) HI	16	17
16/5050	31 (+ 4 yes) HI	16	15
17/5051	31 (+ 4 no) HI	16	15
18/5052	31 (No Resp)HI	16	15
19/5054	33 (+ 3 yes) HI	17	16
20/5055	30 (+ 4 no) HI	14	16
n=10 SOPHOMORES	9 HI /1 LO MO	ave. 15.7	ave. 15.3

Two Group Total on MOTIVATION MEAN SCORES

Hunan University	INSTRUMENTAL	INTEGRATIVE
•Sophomores (n=20)	16.4	16.15

Due to expected glossing of responses on questions designed to elicit "instrumental" and "integrative" motivation (i.e., the "approval motive" that Oller 1981 noted often colors self-reported attitudes), the aforementioned six-point backup questionnaire based on Gardner and Lambert's (1972) "Motivational Intensity Scale" was attached to the main ten-question attitudinal questionnaire. Herein, freshmen and sophomores at both schools were asked questions which aimed to highlight a more active orientation toward the target language. Notably, there were directional differences (highlighted in bold print) between the response patterns of half of the sophomores and for one-third of the freshmen from both universities on these

questions. Responses on this portion of the Attitudinal Questionnaire for the twenty sophomores profiled from each school were as follows:

Q:1 Do you plan to continue learning or to use English after you graduate from college?

HUNAN UNIV. (Sophs.)	# YES	# NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
	18	1	1 / 90% yes
OKAYAMA UNIV. (Sophs.)	# YES	# NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
	14	5	1 / 70% yes

Q:2 Do you spend more than the minimum time on most of your English class (homework) assignments?

HUNAN SOPHS.	# YES	# NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
	6	13	1 / 65% no
OKAYAMA SOPHS.	# YES	# NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
	9	11	0 / 55% no

Q:3 Do you make use of the English language outside of school?

HUNAN SOPHS.	# YES	# NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
	6	13	1 / 65% no
OKAYAMA SOPHS.	# YES	# NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
	11	9	0 / 55% yes

Q:4 Do you ever practice English outside of class/ attempt to converse with native speakers?

HUNAN SOPHS.	# YES	# NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
	10	9	1 / 50% yes
OKAYAMA SOPHS.	# YES	# NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
	2	18	0 / 90% no

Q:5 Is improving your English important to you aside from getting a good mark in school?

HUNAN SOPHS.	# YES	NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
	18	1	1 / 90% yes
OKAYAMA SOPHS.	# YES	NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
	17	3	0 / 85% yes

Q:6 If English were not a required subject, would you take time to learn it?

	# YES	# NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
HUNAN SOPHS.	17	2	1 / 85% yes
OKAYAMA SOPHS.	8	11	1 / 55% no

CUMULATIVE TOTAL:			
(HUNAN SOPHS.)	75 YES	39 NO	65.8% yes
(does not include 6 no response)			
(OKAYAMA SOPHS.)	61 YES	57 NO	51.7% yes
(does not include 2 no response)			

Responses on the same portion of the Attitudinal Questionnaire for the 20 freshmen profiled from each school were as follows:

Q:1	# YES	# NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
HUNAN UNIV.	20	0	0 / 100% yes
OKAYAMA UNIV.	14	6	0 / 70% yes

Q:2	# YES	# NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
HUNAN UNIV.	7	12	1 / 60% no
OKAYAMA UNIV.	13	7	0 / 65% yes

Q:3	# YES	# NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
HUNAN UNIV.	6	14	0 70% no
OKAYAMA UNIV.	1	19	0 95% no

Q:4	# YES	# NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
HUNAN UNIV.	12	8	0 60% yes
OKAYAMA UNIV.	2	18	0 90% no

Q:5	# YES	# NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
HUNAN UNIV.	19	1	0 95% yes
OKAYAMA UNIV.	16	4	0 80% yes

Q:6	# YES	# NO	NO RESP./TOTAL
HUNAN UNIV.	19	1	0 95% yes
OKAYAMA UNIV.	13	6	1 65% yes

CUMULATIVE TOTAL			
(HUNAN FROSH)	83 YES	36 NO	69.75% yes
(does not include 1 no response)			
(OKAYAMA FROSH)	59 YES	60 NO	50.42% no
(does not include 1 no response)			
COMBINED TOTAL			
(HUNAN Frosh+Sophs.)	158 YES	75 NO	67.81%* YES
(OKAYAMA Frosh+Sophs.)	120 YES	117 NO	50.633%** YES

*does not include 7 no response **does not include 3 no response

Using adjusted scores of 32 or above as a cut-off point, 14 of 20 freshmen and 16 of 20 sophomores at Okayama University showed HI MOtivation, whereas 19 of 20 students at Hunan University in both freshman and sophomore groups placed into HI MOtivation groups. The fact that such a large majority of students expressed motivation to improve their English and, to an extent proved so by agreeing to participate in testing that had no direct bearing on their immediate coursework, did not translate into proportionally high proficiency scores on the three types of tests (multiple-choice, cloze, and translation-based) used to assess interlanguage development in English syntax, however. Correlations between Motivation Level and performance on these three types of tests ranged from a low of .308 and .364 for freshmen on Translation (from Mandarin or Japanese into English) to a high of .503 and .569 for the last two Multiple-Choice and Cloze-type tests. For sophomores, correlations ranged from a low of .181 on the second Multiple-Choice test to a high of .394 on the first translation. Meanwhile, the level of correlation between scores on a standard grammatical proficiency test (Part II of the CELT) were considerably higher, ranging from a low of .614 for sophomores on the last Multiple-Choice test to a high of .874 on the first translation.[4]

Tables 5 and 6 below show correlation coefficients for Motivation Level, Proficiency Level, and scores on eight tests (three multiple choice-type, T#2, T#5 and T#8, three cloze-type, T#3, T#6 and T#9 and two translations, T#4 and T#7) for the combined sophomore and freshman groups at both universities.

Table 5. Motivation Level and Correlation with Sophomore Test Scores

Multiple Choice	Cloze Procedure	Translation
T#2 Corr .255/r^2.065	T#3 Corr .267/r^2 .071	T#4 Corr .394/r^2 .156
T#5 .181 / r^2.035	T#6 .316/r^2 .100	T#7 .356 /r^2 .127
T#8 .279 / r^2 .078	T#9 .270/r^2 .073	

Proficiency Level and Correlation with Sophomore Test Scores

[4] StatView 512 was used to calculate all correlation coefficients.

Multiple Choice	Cloze Procedure	Translation
T#2 Corr. .866/r^2 .751	T#3 Corr. .782/r^2 .611	T#4 Corr. .874/r^2 .764
T#5 .801 / r^2 .641	T#6 .624 / r^2 .389	T#7 .825 / r^2 .680
T#8 .848 / r^2 .719	T#9 ..614 / r^2 .377	

Table 6 Motivation Level and Correlation with Freshmen Test Scores

Multiple Choice	Cloze Procedure	Translation
T#2 Corr. .441/r^2.195	T#3 Corr. .350/r^2.122	T#4 Corr. .308/r^2.095
T#5 .421 / r^2.177	T#6 .499/r^2 .249	T#7 .364 /r^2 .133
T#8 .503 / r^2 .253	T#9 .569/r^2 .324	

Proficiency Level and Correlation with Freshmen Test Scores

Multiple Choice	Cloze Procedure	Translation
T#2 Corr. .814/r^2 .662	T#3 Corr. .698/r^2 488	T#4 Corr. .679/r^2.462
T#5 .791 / r^2 .626	T#6 .805/ r^2 .649	T#7 .737 / r^2 .542
T#8 .821 / r^2 .674	T#9 .808/ r^2 .652	

Conclusions and Implications

The above results indicate that general verbal ability, as measured by performance on a standard (structure-based) test such as the CELT, shows a consistently higher correlation with performance on a variety of proficiency tests (covering skills in reading comprehension, vocabulary, syntax and writing) than a Motivational assessment. Cumulative rankings of scores indicate that Translation. tests yielded the highest Motivation and Proficiency correlations for sophomores and the lowest correlations for freshmen. These results, which suggest that a standard proficiency test can point to performance on a variety of skill-based tests with nearly 80% accuracy, are decidedly tentative. The profiled group of forty Japanese and Chinese freshmen and sophomores is far too small to provide an accurate indicator of how great a factor attitudes and motivation are in the EFL context. Nonetheless, the mixed results are somewhat reminiscent of those Oller and Chihara (1978) found with a larger group of adult EFL learners at a language school in another Japanese city. Expressing some disappointment over the lack of correlation of affective variables and attained proficiency as shown on both standard achievement tests and Cloze tests in that research study, particularly when compared with higher correlations found in a study that focused on Chinese learners in an ESL setting, Oller's (1981) skepticism over using attitudinal or motivational assessments as indicators of proficiency in a second language is well-founded.

Furthermore, the battery of tests conducted in this research was designed to assess characteristics of Interlanguage Syntax for speakers of both Mandarin and

Japanese, and not to comment on the relationship between affective variables and second language proficiency *per se*. That freshmen and sophomores who were majoring in Liberal Arts and taking English at Hunan University would outscore their Japanese counterparts in the College of Liberal Science at Okayama University was hypothesized *a priori* due to increased emphasis on English at the former school and other factors such as "transfer of training" and predicted extent of "first language transfer" (Selinker, 1972). For all intents and purposes, however, the four groups of students were matched for age, number of years of instruction in English, regional location and restricted access to the target language (and its speakers), and no assumptions were made as to their particular attitudes toward or motivation for learning English.

That both groups of freshmen and sophomores at Hunan University were able to outpoint freshmen and sophomores with comparable backgrounds in English at Okayama National University indicates that motivational and attitudinal factors, in addition to higher general ability in English syntax (the Chinese students averaging 20 points higher on the CELT than the Japanese students), were at work. The difference in mean scores can also be partially explained by looking at the respective academic weight that is placed on English at both universities. While 8 units of English is a general graduation requirement for all liberal arts (and most science) students at Okayama University, English assumes a more specialized role at Hunan University. For example, English courses are offered in connection with the specific needs of students; i.e. "Business English" for future businesspersons and special classes designed for guides and interpreters, language teachers, etc. in an integrated curriculum that emphasizes all four skills. The long tradition of grammar/translation-based instruction which Scovel (1983) Zhuang (1984) and others have noted as characteristic of foreign language instruction in China is gradually changing. With the opening of its doors to other cultures and purveyors of different ideas about language learning, non-native speaking instructors in China are better able to emphasize communicative aspects of the target language and development in practical skill areas. Japan is also trying to diversify its foreign language methodology, but the heavy dosage of *"juken eigo"* (English for testing purposes) and associated grammar/translation-centered instruction that typifies secondary school instruction during the students' formative years has made the switch to a more communicative approach difficult. The Ministry of Education has recently effected ambitious plans to increase the number of native-speaking instructors in the public school sector and promote team-teaching and updated materials, but with only mixed results so far. It is apparent, then, that in many respects, Hunan University is meeting the "instrumental" designs of its young adult constituency more satisfactorily than Okayama University is meeting the "personal needs" of *its* student population.

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APPENDIX A
Attitudinal Questionnaire

CIRCLE ONE of the following words to describe how you feel about each of the following:

EXAMPLE: English should be a required course in high school.

STRONGLY AGREE / AGREE / NOT SURE / DISAGREE / STRONGLY DISAGREE

1. English is very useful in the workplace or in most job situations these days.

STRONGLY AGREE / AGREE / NOT SURE / DISAGREE / STRONGLY DISAGREE

2. English helps you make a variety of friends more easily.

STRONGLY AGREE / AGREE / NOT SURE / DISAGREE / STRONGLY DISAGREE

3. A truly educated person should be able to read or understand written or spoken English.

STRONGLY AGREE / AGREE / NOT SURE / DISAGREE / STRONGLY DISAGREE

4. English is very useful for helping us to gain knowledge about life in other countries or to better understand life in other countries.

STRONGLY AGREE / AGREE / NOT SURE / DISAGREE / STRONGLY DISAGREE

5. Knowing at least one foreign language is desirable for social recognition or gaining higher social status.

STRONGLY AGREE / AGREE / NOT SURE / DISAGREE / STRONGLY DISAGREE

6. English is necessary if one wishes to travel abroad or live in another country.

STRONGLY AGREE / AGREE / NOT SURE / DISAGREE / STRONGLY DISAGREE

7. I am taking English mainly to gain college course credit.

YES/NO

8. English is important in order to understand Western thought.

STRONGLY AGREE / AGREE / NOT SURE / DISAGREE / STRONGLY DISAGREE

9. English is necessary in order for us to become truly "internationally minded" or a "world citizen."

STRONGLY AGREE / AGREE / NOT SURE / DISAGREE / STRONGLY DISAGREE

10. Write other personal reason(s) for learning English.

APPENDIX B
Motivational Intensity Scale

INSTRUCTIONS: CIRCLE "YES" OR "NO" as you feel appropriate in each case.

YES/NO 1. Do you plan to continue learning or to use English after you graduate from college?

YES/NO 2. Do you spend more than the minimum time on most of your English class (homework) assignments?

YES/NO 3. Do you make use of the English language outside of school?

YES/NO 4. Do you ever practice English outside of class; for example, attempt to converse with native speakers of English?

YES/NO 5. Is improving your English important to you aside from getting a good mark in school?

YES/NO 6. If English were not (required as) a school subject, would you take time to learn it?

APPENDIX C
Supplementary Questionnaire

Please answer as many of the following questions as you can about using English as a second (or foreign) language.

(1) What kinds of topics do you feel comfortable using English to talk about?
_____ _____ _____

(2) What subjects do you prefer NOT to use English to discuss?

(3) What do you like most about English as a second language?

(4) What do you dislike most about English?

(5) Rate the following aspects of English by circling one description from (A) to (F):

(A) The sound system (or pronunciation) of English

VERY MUCH LIKE LIKE NEUTRAL DISLIKE VERY MUCH DISLIKE

(B) The system of word formation (or morphology) of English

VERY MUCH LIKE LIKE NEUTRAL DISLIKE VERY MUCH DISLIKE

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(C) The broadness of the vocabulary (or word choice) available in English

VERY MUCH LIKE LIKE NEUTRAL DISLIKE VERY MUCH DISLIKE

(D) The grammatical system (or syntactic structure) of English

VERY MUCH LIKE LIKE NEUTRAL DISLIKE VERY MUCH DISLIKE

(E) The logicality (or semantic sense) of English

VERY MUCH LIKE LIKE NEUTRAL DISLIKE VERY MUCH DISLIKE

(F) The various cultural aspects of English-speaking peoples

VERY MUCH LIKE LIKE NEUTRAL DISLIKE VERY MUCH DISLIKE

(6) What do you like most about English-speaking people or their cultures?

(7) What do you dislike most about them?

(8) How would you rate yourself on a scale of 1 (total non-proficiency) to 10 (total proficiency or superfluency) in terms of understanding the English language? Circle one. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

A Psycholinguistic Study of Relative Pronoun Use by Native Speakers and Non-Native Speakers of English

MIHO YOROZO

This study explored the similarities and differences in the relative pronoun use by native speakers and non-native speakers of English. The study was conducted with 40 university students consisting of 20 native speakers and 20 non-native speakers of English. Specifically, the study examined the frequency of the relative pronoun use among the two groups of students and spontaneity of their responses in completing a sentence combining task. It was found that: (1) more non-native speakers used relative pronouns than native speakers, (2) more beginning-level non-native speakers used relative pronouns than advanced-level non-native speakers, and (3) more native speakers were aware of the contextual variability of the structure of the complex sentence than non-native speakers. These findings seem to suggest that the frequency of the relative pronoun use characterizes the current developmental stage of the learner's interlanguage system; moreover, the awareness of stylistic/contextual differences in sentence structures distinguishes native speaker competency from less advanced-level interlanguage competency.

INTRODUCTION

A number of researchers have attempted to describe the process and mechanism of second language development (SLD). The system that the learner develops in the acquisition process was referred to as "transitional competence" (Corder, 1967), "approximative system" (Nemser, 1971), and "interlanguage" (Selinker, 1972). These terms are closely related to one another in that they describe a continuum of transitional stages from zero competence to native-like competence. In particular, Selinker described the transitional system as a unique grammar that did not belong to either the learner's first language or target language (1972). Also, by contrasting SLD with the child's first language acquisition, other researchers suggested the nature of the development of interlanguage system. A notable contribution is from Krashen's Monitor Model (1977) which hypothesizes that the development of conscious second language knowledge results from formal study while acquisition is the spontaneous, unconscious process of internalization through natural language use.

Given Krashen's attention to the difference between formal and naturalistic language development, one of the discrepancies is seen between the formal instruction of relative pronouns and the reality of natural language use the learner encounters outside the classroom: the relative pronoun, which the learner is taught to place before the relative clause, is often omitted by native speakers. When the learner is first exposed to the target language in a natural setting, frequent use of the relative pronoun is likely to be a factor that characterizes his/her interlanguage system.

The above untested assumption motivated me to investigate the relative pronoun use in the first and second language contexts. In spite of the uniqueness of

Selinker's interlanguage theory and Krashen's Monitor Model, some fundamental questions were still remaining: "Can interlanguage systems be characterized by the frequency of relative pronoun use?" "Is native speakers' use of relative pronouns really an unconscious process?" or "What kinds of cognitive processes are involved in the mechanism that enables the learner to comprehend and produce a complex sentence that contains a relative clause?" If interlanguage is dynamic and constantly changing as Ellis (1985) claimed, the difference in syntactic construction of a complex sentence containing a relative clause should be observed among learners at various levels. The observation will also lead to an exemplification of another aspect of interlanguage: systematicity (Ellis, 1985) consisting of characteristics of transitional competence at each stage of development.

This paper examines differences and similarities between the systems developed in the first language context and interlanguage context. Comparison is made by giving a simple grammatical task to a group of native speakers and a group of non-native speakers.

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

This research involved 40 students who attended the University of Alabama in the Fall semester of 1993. They were categorized into two groups: 20 students who are native speakers of English, and 20 students who are non-native speakers of English. The two groups were not consistent in terms of class rank and major at the time of the research. The students in the non-native group had diverse linguistic backgrounds: Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Icelandic, Spanish, Vietnamese, and Sinhalese were listed as native languages, and their competency in English ranged from beginning to advanced fluency.

Materials

I designed a questionnaire accompanied by a task. The task was a simple grammar problem in which the subject was asked to combine two simple sentences and produce in writing a complex sentence whose initial word was fixed:

Task: How do you combine the following two sentences?
She gave me a watch.
This is the watch.
Thus_____.

The questionnaire sheet, which was filled out immediately after the completion of the task, consisted of five questions:

1. Did you use "that" or "which" to combine the sentences?
   Yes_____ (Go on to Q. 2)
   No_____ (Go on to Q. 4)
2. Did you think of combining them without "that" or "which"?
   Yes_____ (Go on to Q. 3)
   No_____ (Stop here)
3. Why do you think you chose to use one?
   (Stop here)
4. Did you think of combining them with "that" or "which"?

Yes_____ (Go on to Q. 5)
No_____ (Stop here)
5. Why do you think you chose not to use one?
(Stop here)

Since the subjects who marked "Yes" on 1 moved on to 2 or both 2 and 3 and the subjects who marked "No" on 1 moved on to 4 or both 4 and 5, the actual number of questions to be answered was either two or three of the five. The subjects who used either of the relative pronouns and did not think of not using the pronoun did not have to continue the questionnaire. Similarly, the subjects who used neither of the relative pronouns and did not think of using one were considered to have completed the questionnaire at that point.

The task and the questionnaire were kept short as well as the time spent completing them so that the subjects' prompt reactions could be elicited. In addition, the task and the questionnaire were printed on two separate sheets of paper in order for the subjects not to be distracted by the questions when performing the task.

Procedures

The subjects were randomly chosen on the University of Alabama campus. I spoke to students who happened to be having lunch at the cafeteria or who were waiting for a class in the hall at the building where I work. As the number of the responses accumulated, I controlled who to ask in order to even the numbers of native speakers and non-native speakers. However, a distinction was only made as to whether the subject was a native speaker or a non-native speaker.

First, the task sheet containing the sentences in question was given to each subject. The purpose of the research was not explained at all, although it was made clear that the task had nothing to do with the correctness or incorrectness of the answer. The questionnaire sheet was given right after the task, and both sheets were collected immediately. The subject was constantly prompted to complete the task and the questionnaire as quickly as possible and was not even allowed to change his/her answers. All the subjects were kept anonymous; the only information that they were asked to provide was their class standing, major, and native language.

I briefly conversed with each non-native speaker when I gave the questionnaire and rated his/her fluency in English as 1 (beginning), 2 (intermediate), and 3 (advanced), based on general impression. The fluency ranking of each non-native speaker was noted down on the questionnaire sheet.

RESULTS

First of all, the collected questionnaire sheets were divided into two categories: native speakers and non-native speakers. Each category was further divided into two: a group of students who used a relative pronoun to combine the two simple sentences and a group of students who did not use a relative pronoun for the same purpose. As Table 1 shows, seven native speakers used a relative pronoun in the complex sentence, and thirteen did not use a relative pronoun. It should be noted that three of the seven who did not use a relative pronoun stated that they would not have used it if it had been a verbal task. Conversely, fourteen non-native speakers used a relative pronoun, and six did not use a relative pronoun.

Table 1. Native and Non-native Speakers

	used RP*	didn't use RP	total
native	7	13	20
non-native	14	6	20

(RP: Relative Pronoun)

Table 2. Native Speakers

	thought of not using RP	didn't think of not using RP	total
used RP	4	3	7
	thought of using RP	didn't think of using RP	
didn't use RP	6	7	13
total	10	10	

Table 3. Non-native Speakers

	thought of not using RP	didn't think of not using RP	total
used RP	5	7	12
	thought of using RP	didn't think of using RP	
didn't use RP	2	4	6
total	7	11	

In a further categorization, the following result was elicited as shown in Table 2. Four of the seven native speakers who combined the simple sentences with a relative pronoun thought of doing the same task without using a relative pronoun, and three did not consider the possibility of not using a relative pronoun. In addition, six of the thirteen native speakers who did not use a relative pronoun considered using it, and seven did not consider using it. On the other hand, as shown in Table 3, five of the fourteen non-native speakers who used a relative pronoun considered not using it, and seven did not consider not using it. That the combined total of these two sub-categories differs from the total number of the non-native speakers who used a relative pronoun is no doubt attributable to two invalid answers included under this item. Two of the six non-native speakers who did not use a relative pronoun thought of using it, and four did not even think of using it.

In terms of the fluency levels of the non-native speakers, there were nine level-1 students, four level-2 students, and one level-3 student in the relative pronoun user group, and there were one level-1 student, one level-2 student, and four level-3 students in the non-relative pronoun user group (Table 4).

Table 4. Non-native Speakers

	level 1	level 2	level 3	total
used RP	9	4	1	14
didn't use RP	1	1	4	6

Table 5. Non-native Speakers

		level 1	level 2	level 3	total
used RP	thought of not using RP	5	0	0	5
used RP	didn't think of not using RP	3	3	1	7
didn't use RP	thought of using RP	1	0	1	2
didn't use RP	didn't think of using RP	0	1	3	4

Moreover, as shown in Table 5, all five of the non-native students who used a relative pronoun and considered not using it were level-1 students; three of the non-native students who used a relative pronoun and did not consider not using it were in level-1, three were in level-2, and one was in level-3. Whereas each of the two non-native students who did not use a relative pronoun and considered using it was in level-1 and level-2; one of the four non-native students who did not use a relative pronoun and did not consider the possibility of using it was in level-2; three were in level-3.

DISCUSSION

Monitor Model Reevaluated

As stated in the introduction, the main purpose of this paper is to examine differences and similarities between systems developed in the first language context and interlanguage context. Krashen (1981) argued that the way a child acquires a first language is quite different from the way an adult learns a second language in the sense that a child develops systems subconsciously, whereas an adult develops systems consciously. Also, first language learners are not aware of linguistic rules though second language learners are usually taught rules and therefore aware of them when they manipulate them in the target language. Krashen's proposal has been controversial since his theory began to evolve in his several articles, but at the same time it has been popular among SLD researchers. The results of the above research, however, do not support his argument.

There was an apparent difference in tendency to use a relative pronoun in a complex sentence between native speakers and non-native speakers. More non-native speakers used a relative pronoun than native speakers, which is not only shown by the numbers in Table 1 but also reconfirmed by the comment written by three of the seven native speakers who used a relative pronoun: they stated that they would not have used a relative pronoun in conversation. The structural

difference in explicit language outcome signifies the possibility of a different processing mechanism between native speakers and non-native speakers.

As for the awareness of rules, the results do not seem to be favorable to Krashen's theory if by rules he meant linguistic rules in general including not only syntax but also pragmatic conventions. More native speakers thought of other ways of combining the simple sentences than non-native speakers. For example, four native speakers who used a relative pronoun and six who did not use a relative pronoun considered otherwise (sum: 10). Three native speakers who used a relative pronoun and seven who did not use a relative pronoun never considered otherwise (sum: 10). The ratio of native speakers who did consider the alternative sentence structure and those who did not was 1.0. Whereas seven non-native speakers considered the alternative, and eleven did not, producing a ratio of 0.64. The subjects who thought of both ways of producing a complex sentence were aware of two alternatives of producing a new grammatical structure in the same context. In other words, at the moment of the task, more native speakers were aware of the two different sets of linguistic rules than non-native speakers.

In interpreting the above result, it should be noted that five native speakers mentioned the style difference between casual conversational usage and formal written usage, although only one level-3 non-native speaker mentioned it. The difference can be interpreted as deriving from native speakers' awareness of stylistic variation that can lead to produce syntactic difference, something which non-native speakers do not have ample chances to learn in a classroom setting. In addition, four non-native speakers mentioned that they followed the grammar that they were taught in schools, and two mentioned that a relative pronoun makes it easier to construct logic. Thus it illustrates that non-native speakers tend to focus on form rather than styles and context and mindfully monitor their production of the target language in terms of its syntax.

Within the group of non-native speakers, the higher the competency level, the less frequently they used a relative pronoun, which reminds us of native speakers' tendency to omit a relative pronoun. It seems that learners' use of the relative pronoun becomes less frequent as they progress along a continuum from zero competence toward the level that resembles the native speaker's competence. Furthermore, all the students who eventually used a relative pronoun after considering otherwise were in level-1, and three of the four students who did not use a relative pronoun even without considering the alternative were in level-3. The evidence of spontaneity shows a change in self-regulation as the learner progresses along the interlanguage continuum.

Awareness of Contextual/Stylistic Variability

In the field of SLD study, the information processing theory postulated by Shiffrin and Schneider (1977), which was adopted and applied to SLD (McLaughlin, 1987), is currently the most prominent cognitive theory. Another notable cognitive theory that can be applied to SLD is the biofunctional model (Iran-Nejad, 1990) which emphasizes the multiple sources of self-regulation in the learning process. The Gestalt theoretical model has more advantages than the information processing theory when one attempts to describe second language competency in terms of the understanding of the relationship between language as parts and the external environment as a whole.

According to the biofunctional model proposed by Iran-Nejad (1990), there are three types of self-regulation that are activated in learning processes: external self-regulation, active self-regulation, and dynamic self-regulation. External self-regulation is externally available information that is beyond the learner's control. For example, not only the task in the questionnaire used in this study but also the context of filling out the questionnaire were externally provided and could not be controlled by the subject. Active self-regulation is internal control that occurs under the conscious control of the central executive process and is referred to as intentional and voluntary self-regulation. Dynamic self-regulation is also internal control that occurs under the spontaneous control of the nonexecutive components of the nervous system and is inherently rapid and simultaneous (Iran-Nejad, 1990).

Although the external environment was provided for the respondents in which they were required to do a task and fill out a questionnaire, the interpretation of the task was dependent on their internal self-regulation. Considering that a slightly larger number of native speakers than non-native speakers thought of two ways of producing a complex sentence and that several native speakers commented on the style variation as a factor that influenced the use of a relative pronoun, it can be said that native speakers dynamically interpreted the environment and actively selected the grammatical structure that they felt suitable to the whole environment. In other words, dynamic self-regulation is responsible for clarifying the relationship between language as parts and the environment as a whole. There is no question about the activation of active self-regulation in the conscious selecting process, but the whole process is governed by simultaneous and spontaneous activation of dynamic self-regulation.

As for the non-native speakers' internal process, lower level students tended to actively focus on form and pedagogical grammar rather than pragmatic factors that require them to dynamically understand the parts-whole relationship. It might be premature to make a positive assertion that higher level students tended to work on the task more dynamically than lower level students because of the small number of level-3 students who mentioned style variation, using the term "simple." However, it can be assumed that the internal process of higher level students tended to be more intuitive, rapid, and less active than lower level students and somewhat resembled the tendency among the native speakers.

CONCLUSION

The initial interest of the present study was to investigate the use of relative pronouns and spontaneity of the native and no-native speakers' response in a sentence combining task. In other words, stylistic variation was not the initial concern of the present study. The evidence, however, demonstrated the respondents' awareness of the variation influencing their language use, which was consistent with many researchers' observation (Tarone, 1983; Ellis, 1985). As a result, findings regarding stylistic/contextual variability were obtained in addition to the speaker's self-regulatory system in language production. It implies the importance of the richness and clear presentation of the context of language use consisting of interactions in which the learners engage themselves in the second/foreign language classroom.

In this research, different aspects of internal self-regulation might have been observed if the responses had been elicited through an interview. Also, it could

have been possible to obtain a different set of findings contributing to the creation of successful learners if the researcher had controlled the ratio of level-1 students to level-3 students. Such modifications should be considered in a follow-up study. Nevertheless, it was fruitful to find similarities and differences in the extent of activation of active self-regulation not only between native and non-native speakers but also between beginning and advanced non-native speakers.

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The Compensation Model

GI-PYO PARK

This paper proposes *The Compensation Model*, which helps explain the difference between child and adult language acquisition in terms of different cognitive modules and theories. Maturational constraints and the availability of negative input in adult L2 acquisition are presented as evidence in support of this change in the cognitive modules and theories. Two explanatory goals and four explanatory powers of this model are presented in this paper.

INTRODUCTION

Even though forty to sixty models or hypotheses have been proposed in the domain of second language (L2) acquisition (Long, 1993), no theory of L2 acquisition exists at the present time, leaving this domain as an immature science.[1]

One reason for the lack of a theory of L2 acquisition is that the phenomena of L2 acquisition may be too complex to be explained by a single theory (Beretta, 1991; see also Long, 1993; Spolsky, 1989; Huebner, 1988). In order to avoid this dilemma, researchers have suggested what a theory of L2 acquisition should minimally consider or be able to explain (Birdsong, in press; Gregg, in press; Long, 1990a). According to Birdsong (in press), three areas of L2 acquisition research--knowledge of Universal Grammar (UG), ultimate attainment in L2 acquisition, and cognitive views on L2 acquisition--have the potential for developing a theory of L2 acquisition. Gregg (in press; see also Wolfe-Quintero, 1992; Felix, 1984), on the other hand, argues that the explanatory goals of L2 acquisition theory should be the logical problem, that is, "how is acquisition possible?" and the developmental problem, that is, "how does acquisition proceed?"[2]

Among the forty to sixty models/hypotheses, *The Competition Model* (Felix, 1985) and *The Fundamental Difference Hypothesis* (Bley-Vroman, 1989) deal with the difference between child and adult language acquisition in terms of cognition. *The Competition Model* attempts to explain why children are, ultimately, better language learners than adults in terms of two different cognitive modules--the language-specific module (UG) and the general problem-solving module--operating in child and adult language

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[1]Long (1993) argues that the terms theories, models, perspectives, metaphors, hypotheses, and theoretical claims are all used in free variation (see also Gregg, 1989). Considering that a good theory should guide and stimulate "the ongoing process of scientific inquiry" (McLaughlin, 1987, p. 16), the monitor model (Krashen, 1981), among the forty to sixty models or hypotheses proposed so far, can be considered a good theory in that this model has stimulated intensive L2 acquisition research. However, the monitor model has been criticized from many perspectives (see McLaughlin, 1987; White, 1987; Gregg, 1984).

[2]Gregg (in press, 1993, 1990) further argues that the explananda, that is, the phenomena to be explained, of L2 acquisition theory are not performance or proficiency but competence. Responding to Gregg's paper (1990), however, Ellis (1990) argues that theories should be context-dependent and purposeful, and that proficiency, not competence, should be a central concern of theories for educationalists.

acquisition. According to this model, in adult language acquisition, the general problem-solving module, which develops with age, competes with the language-specific module, which is innate and guides child language acquisition, and this is why children are better language learners than adults in ultimate attainment. This model, however, fails to explain why adults rely on the general problem-solving module if the language-specific module is intact and why the two cognitive modules compete with each other rather than cooperate.

The Fundamental Difference Hypothesis attempts to explain the difference between child language development and adult language learning. According to this hypothesis, UG and domain-specific learning procedures are in charge of child language development. In adult foreign language learning, however, native language knowledge takes the place of UG, and general problem-solving systems take the place of domain-specific learning procedures. These fundamental changes happen because UG and the domain-specific learning procedures are not accessible in adult language learning. The problems of this hypothesis are that it does not mention further how L1 and problem-solving systems operate in adult language learning, and it ignores cases where adult language learners acquire L2 parameter values which cannot be explained by the parameter values of the native language.

The Compensation Model attempts to explain the logical and developmental problems of language acquisition in the continuum from childhood to adulthood. Thus, like *The Competition Model* and *The Fundamental Difference Hypothesis*, a distinction is made between child and adult language acquisition rather than between L1 and L2 acquisition.[3] Two assumptions are made in *The Compensation Model*. The first is the existence of two different cognitive modules--language-specific and general cognition--in the mind (White, 1989; Cook, 1988; Fodor, 1983).[4] Another assumption of this model is the independent and interactive roles of these cognitive modules. The cognitive modules are independent of each other, in that each module is responsible for each aspect of learning, and interactive, in that the higher level of cognitive module, if necessary, compensates for the lower level of cognitive module (see Bley-Vroman, 1989; Schachter, 1988; Clahsen & Muysken, 1986; Felix, 1985).

This model is descriptive in that it incorporates the findings reported in current L2 acquisition research, and explanatory in that it explains the logical and developmental problems of child and adult language acquisition. In addition, the model is predictive because it can predict why children are better language learners than adults in terms of ultimate attainment, why native language and language learning strategies play critical roles in adult rather than child language acquisition, and why there are variable degrees of attainment in adult language acquisition.

LANGUAGE-SPECIFIC COGNITION AND CHILD LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

[3]Despite the distinction made between child and adult language acquisition rather than between L1 and L2 acquisition, the main interest of this paper is in child or adult L2 acquisition rather than in child or adult L1 acquisition. Thus, here child and adult language acquisition mainly refers to child and adult L2 acquisition.

[4]Other researchers view the mind as a single unitary system rather than several separate systems (Anderson, 1985). Cognitive modules refer to separate systems of the mind (see Cook, 1988).

Language-specific cognition is cognition which is designed for processing linguistic input only, and mainly consists of knowledge of UG and language learning principles. In *The Compensation Model*, UG is responsible for resolving the logical problem, and language learning principles take charge of the developmental problem of child language acquisition.

Knowledge of UG

Native speakers have intuitive knowledge that some of the following sentences are not acceptable.

1. The man who is tall is Park.
   Is the man who is tall Park?
   *Is the man who tall is Park?
2. Who do you want to win the play?
   *Who do you wanna win the play?

This intuitive knowledge of native speakers is assumed to be attained uniformly around by the age of five (Chomsky, 1981), and this assumption has been tested in several studies. For instance, Crain and Nakayama (1987) and Crain and Thornton (1988) report that children between the ages of three and five have syntactic knowledge of structure dependency and wanna-contraction.

How do children at age five uniformly acquire this abstract linguistic knowledge? It could be accounted for by the input they get through their language learning experience. Interestingly enough, however, the input children get is too underdetermined and degenerated to explain their linguistic knowledge, and furthermore it is positive only (White, 1989; Pinker, 1989 & 1984). This "poverty of stimulus" argument is well expressed by Chomsky (1986): "our knowledge is richly articulated . . . whereas the data available are much too impoverished to determine it by any general procedure of induction, generalization, analogy, association, or whatever" (p. 55).

Thus, the "poverty of stimulus" in child language acquisition suggests that the linguistic knowledge children ultimately attain goes beyond the input they get. The gap between this available input and attained linguistic knowledge is called the logical or Plato's problem of language acquisition (Chomsky, 1986; Baker & McCarthy, 1981; Hornstein & Lightfoot, 1981). One possible solution to this problem is to attribute child language acquisition to such cognitive procedures as induction, inference, or language learning strategies. Considering the cognitive development of children, however, this solution does not seem possible.[5] Another possible solution to this problem is that the gap is bridged by an innate language learning system called Universal Grammar (UG), which is defined as "the system of principles, conditions, and rules that are elements or properties of all human languages" (Chomsky, 1976, p. 29).[6]

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[5] Piaget (1962) contends that (general) cognition develops with age specifically through four consecutive stages: the sensory-motor stage, the pre-operational stage, the stage of concrete operations, and the stage of formal operations. According to this theory, children at age five belong to the stage of concrete operations, at which stage children cannot deal with such abstract linguistic knowledge as structure dependency and wanna-contraction (see also Felix, 1985 & 1981).

[6] Even though Chomsky contends that UG is interchangeable with the language acquisition device (LAD) (Chomsky, 1986 & 1981), other researchers

According to the theory of parameter-setting, language acquisition is the process of applying innate knowledge of UG, such as structure dependency and the subjacency principle, to a particular language, and setting the parameter values of the language. In order to set parameter values, two elements--primary linguistic input (data) to trigger UG and language learning mechanisms to analyze and interpret the input--are required. Language acquisition is, thus, the result of the interaction between UG and primary linguistic input through language learning mechanisms for the manipulation of the input.

UG is so powerful that children uniformly acquire their native, a second, or a third language despite their limited ability to analyze abstract linguistic knowledge, and independent of individual and situational differences. Two language learning principles, the subset principle and the uniqueness principle, have been discussed in the literature as language learning mechanisms for child language acquisition.

Language Learning Principles

The logical problem of child language acquisition, that is, "how is acquisition possible?" has been explained by the innate knowledge of UG. Next concern is the developmental problem of child language acquisition, that is, "how does acquisition proceed?"

As noted briefly in the above section, the input children obtain is positive only. In other words, they do not get negative input in the environment. According to Pinker (1989 & 1984), negative input is not available to children, nor do they need negative input for language acquisition. Our logical question is how children can proceed with positive input only. This question has been answered within the context of two language learning principles: the subset principle and the uniqueness principle.

The subset principle is a learner's ability to make the most conservative hypothesis consistent with the input (Gregg, in press; White, 1989; Berwick, 1985). Since the subset principle operates in child language acquisition, children make only limited overgeneralized rules, allowing them to acquire L1 or L2 with positive input only. The uniqueness principle, on the other hand, is a learner's ability to make only one syntactic form with a particular semantic concept (Gregg, in press; White, 1989; Berwick, 1985). The role of the uniqueness principle is to preempt overgeneralized grammars consistent with the input. Since innate knowledge of UG and language learning principles are understood to constrain grammars in child language acquisition, children make only limited overgeneralizations and preempt the overgeneralizations they make by the positive input.

In sum, child language acquisition is explained by the theory of parameter-setting in language-specific cognition which mainly consists of knowledge of UG and language learning principles. UG resolves the logical problem, and language learning principles take charge of the developmental problem of child language acquisition. Thus, child language acquisition can be schematized as Figure 1.

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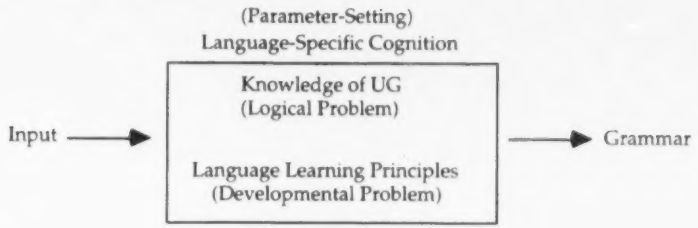
distinguish UG and the LAD (Hilles, 1991; see also Gregg, in press; White, 1989; Berwick, 1985). The author assumes that LAD may include UG and language learning principles.

Figure 1. Child Language Acquisition



THE ACCESSIBILITY OF LANGUAGE-SPECIFIC COGNITION IN ADULT LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Since knowledge of UG and language learning principles are in charge of resolving the logical and developmental problems of child language acquisition, our next logical question is the accessibility of UG and language learning principles in adult language acquisition. The accessibility of UG and language learning principles to adult language learners is discussed in terms of maturational constraints and the availability of negative input in adult L2 acquisition.

Maturational Constraints on Adult L2 Acquisition.

Assuming that UG contributes to the uniform success of child language acquisition, whether UG is accessible to adult language acquisition is a central issue for L2 acquisition research. The potential accessibility of UG to adult L2 acquisition has been raised theoretically (White, 1989; Cook, 1988; Sharwood Smith, 1988). Cook (1988) describes three possibilities regarding the accessibility of UG in adult L2 acquisition: (1) direct access to UG in which L2 learners use the principles of UG without reference to L1 values, (2) indirect access to UG in which L2 learners use the principles of UG via L1, and (3) no access to UG in which L1 competence is distinct from L2 competence.

Considering the on-going controversies regarding the accessibility of UG in adult L2 acquisition on an empirical level (Birdsong, 1992; Schwarts, 1992; Johnson & Newport, 1991; White, 1990; Schachter, 1989; Bley-Vroman et al., 1988; Flynn, 1987; Clahsen & Muysken, 1986), conceptual discussion may be more appropriate than empirical discussion at this time.

As noted above, knowledge of UG combined with language learning principles is responsible for child language acquisition, and is so powerful that normal children uniformly reach ultimate attainment independent of input, language learning strategies, and other individual and situational differences. Adult L2 learners, however, show variable degrees of attainment. Furthermore, only a few adult L2 learners, if any, acquire native competence (Ioup et al, 1994; Birdsong, 1992; see also White, in press), and most adult L2 learners show general failure (Bley-Vroman, 1989; Schachter, 1988), leading to the proposal of a critical/sensitive period or maturational constraints on L2 acquisition.

It is now a popular idea that there are maturational constraints on both L1 and L2 acquisition. Thus, the accessibility of UG in adult L2 acquisition has been discussed using the notion of maturational constraints (Birdsong, 1991; Flynn & Manuel, 1991; see

also Long, 1990b). That is, if UG is still accessible to L2 learners independent of age, adult language learners, like child language learners, should show uniform success independent of input, language learning strategies, and other individual and situational variables. Thus, the idea of maturational constraints on L2 acquisition suggests that UG may not be accessible to adult L2 learners. In this regard, Hess (1964) reported that "behaviors learned traditionally during a critical period, can be learned after the close of the critical period, but via alternate routes" (reported in Rosansky, 1975, p. 93).

Thus, as several researchers indicate, knowledge of UG may deteriorate with age, and other types of knowledge compensate for the deterioration of UG in adult language acquisition (Bley-Vroman, 1989; Schachter, 1988; Clahsen & Muysken, 1986).

Negative Input in Adult L2 Acquisition

As was already pointed out, researchers contend that negative input is not necessary, nor is it available in child language acquisition (Pinker, 1989 & 1984; Wexler & Culicover, 1980). Assuming this position, whether negative input, including instruction, is available and/or necessary in adult L2 acquisition has been a hot issue, but the results are somewhat controversial among researchers.

Long (1983) argues that formal instruction does work in both adult and child L2 acquisition. Bley-Vroman (1986) also contends that adult L2 learners need negative input for disconfirming interlanguage hypotheses. However, Schumann (1978) reports that even though instruction works in adult L2 acquisition for a time, adult L2 learners show fossilization in the long run. In a similar vein, Gregg (in press) contends that even if negative input is available in adult L2 acquisition, it is still an open question whether or how much negative input helps learners set parameter values of the target language. In a comprehensive report on the issue of negative input, Birdsong (1989) concludes that even though the role of negative input is limited in adult L2 acquisition, adult L2 learners do need negative input for disconfirming ill-formed interlanguage hypotheses. He further contends that appropriate use of negative input leads to a more efficient approach to L2 acquisition.

Whether or not negative input is beneficial to adult L2 learners in the long run and whether or not negative input works in parameter-setting, the contention here is that adult language learners, compared with child language learners, do make many overgeneralized hypotheses in L2 acquisition. In the previous section, the author argued that child language learners are able to acquire their L1 and L2 with positive input only, and that this is because UG and language learning principles constrain the grammars of child language learners. Therefore, the overgeneralized hypotheses made by adult language learners suggest that knowledge of UG and language learning principles may deteriorate with age, and thus do not operate in adult language acquisition.

GENERAL COGNITION AND ADULT LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Compared to language-specific cognition which processes linguistic input only, general cognition deals with input (information) from various fields such as math and science as well as with linguistic input. General cognition consists of previous knowledge, problem-solving abilities, beliefs, motivation, learning strategies, etc.[7]

[7]Compared to the language-specific cognitive module which is based on linguistics, the general cognitive module, which is based on cognitive psychology,

Among these sub-domains of general cognition, two sub-domains, knowledge of the L1 and language learning strategies, play critical roles in adult L2 acquisition. In *The Compensation Model*, knowledge of the L1 is responsible for resolving the logical problem, and language learning strategies take charge of the developmental problem of adult language acquisition.

Knowledge of the L1

Knowledge of UG is responsible for resolving the logical problem of child language acquisition. Interestingly, however, even though UG may deteriorate with age, there is a logical problem of adult L2 acquisition as well (White, 1990; Bley-Vroman, 1989). That is, some adult L2 learners acquire abstract knowledge of the L2 by input which is underdetermined and degenerated. Thus, adult language learners, like child language learners, go beyond the input they get. The question is, if UG is not accessible to adult language learners, how is the logical problem of adult L2 acquisition solved? Even though UG is not accessible to adult language learners, they do have knowledge of the L1 as previous knowledge, into which much of their knowledge of UG is transformed. In this sense, adult L2 learners have much of the knowledge of UG through knowledge of the L1, and knowledge of the L1 is responsible for resolving the logical problem of adult language acquisition.

Even though knowledge of UG is accessible to adult L2 learners through knowledge of the L1, adult L2 acquisition cannot be explained by parameter-setting. This is because language learning principles as language learning mechanisms are not accessible to adult L2 acquisition. As was noted above, knowledge of UG alone cannot explain language acquisition by the theory of parameter-setting. Learning mechanisms are required as well for the interpretation and analysis of input. This blocking of parameter-setting in adult L2 acquisition leads adult L2 learners to rely on information-processing.

Acquisition through information-processing is quite different from acquisition through parameter-setting. The former involves previous knowledge and other individual and situational variables, whereas the latter occurs instantaneously independent of individual and situational variables. Adult language learners learn, rather than set, the parameter values of the L2 through both deductive and inductive processing. When the parameter values of the L2 are identical to those of the L1, much learning may occur through deductive processing based on the fixed parameter values of the L1. When the parameter values of the L2 are different from those of the L1, however, learning may occur through inductive processing.

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consists of many sub-domains such as L1 as previous knowledge, memory, beliefs, problem-solving abilities, motivation, learning strategies, etc. Since all these sub-domains play key roles in adult L2 acquisition, finding causative variables in adult L2 acquisition seems overwhelming at this time. Researchers oriented in linguistics have attempted to explain L2 acquisition phenomena by simplifying the rules (Miller, 1990). However, psychology-oriented researchers have tried to explain L2 acquisition phenomena by finding learning processes or by finding (causative) variables affecting L2 acquisition. Yet, to date, the (causative) variables are increasing rather than decreasing with the development of cognitive psychology. Gregg (in press) contends that this is because these variables are not truly causative. Thus, finding a limited number of causative variables affecting L2 acquisition should be the major goal of L2 acquisition researchers in general and of L2 acquisition researchers oriented in cognitive psychology in particular.

The idea that UG is not accessible in adult L2 acquisition and that adult L2 learners' knowledge of the L1 resolves the logical problem of adult language acquisition raises, in turn, the following question: How can adult L2 learners' acquisition of the knowledge of UG which cannot be reconstructed via the L1 be explained? In many studies, adult L2 learners do show knowledge of UG which cannot be reconstructed via the L1 probablistically, that is, at a level above chance (Johnson, 1993; Johnson & Newport, 1991). The probablistic knowledge of UG acquired by adult L2 learners, in this circumstance, may result from restructuring where information already acquired is reorganized (McLaughlin, 1990). One of the reasons for attributing the theory of parameter-setting to child language acquisition comes from children's limited cognitive ability to interpret and analyze abstract linguistic knowledge. Adult L2 learners, however, do have well-developed cognitive abilities to interpret and analyze linguistic input during which restructuring may occur.

Language Learning Strategies

Language learning principles are responsible for resolving the developmental problem of child language acquisition. If language learning principles are not accessible to adult language learners, how can the process of adult L2 acquisition be explained? Since language learning principles, which are automatic, are not accessible to adult L2 learners, adult L2 learners need to rely on language learning strategies, which are intentional, to compensate for the deterioration of language learning principles. In this sense, language learning strategies are responsible for the developmental problem of adult L2 acquisition.

Learning strategies are defined as specific behaviors and thought processes used by the learner to facilitate acquisition, storage, or retrieval of information (Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). This definition implies three critical roles of language learning strategies in adult L2 acquisition: inviting input, facilitating input processing, and producing output. Since much adult L2 acquisition occurs inductively, which is data-driven, inviting more and better input is critical in adult L2 acquisition. In addition, producing output provides adult L2 learners with opportunities to test hypotheses, during which restructuring occurs, and to invite negative input from more advanced learners. In terms of facilitating input processing, let's turn to the research in general learning strategies, in that the ideas of language learning strategies come from those of general learning strategies.

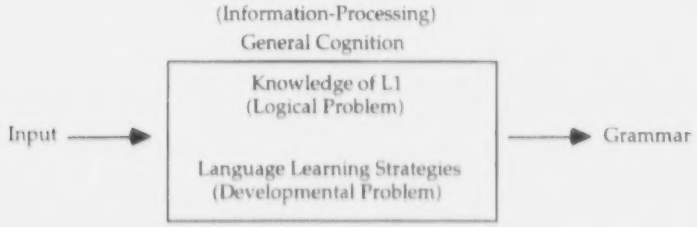
Weinstein and Mayer (1986) contend that learning strategy use facilitates processing new information (input) by influencing cognitive and affective domains during the encoding process. The encoding process falls into the following four stages: selection, acquisition, construction, and integration. Through selection, learners pay attention to specific information and transfer this information into working memory. In acquisition, learners transfer information from working memory to long-term memory. In the stage of construction, learners actively build internal connections between ideas in the information that has reached working memory. In the final stage of integration, learners actively look for prior knowledge in long-term memory and transfer this knowledge to working memory.

Whether language learning strategies are causative variables in adult L2 acquisition has not been verified yet. However, many studies have shown that language learning strategies are related to adult L2 proficiency/achievement (Park, under review; Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Ramirez, 1986; Bialystok, 1981; see also

O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Thus, adult L2 acquisition, at least partly, may depend on how strategic adult L2 learners are in language learning tasks. Adult L2 learners, compared to child language learners, show variable degrees of attainment in L2 acquisition, and part of this variable attainment may be determined by quantitative as well as qualitative use of language learning strategies.

In sum, compared to child language acquisition which is explained by parameter-setting in language-specific cognition, adult language acquisition is explained by information-processing in general cognition which mainly consists of knowledge of the L1 and language learning strategies. Knowledge of the L1 resolves the logical problem, and language learning strategies take charge of the developmental problem of adult language acquisition. Thus, adult language acquisition can be schematized as Figure 2.

Figure 2. Adult Language Acquisition



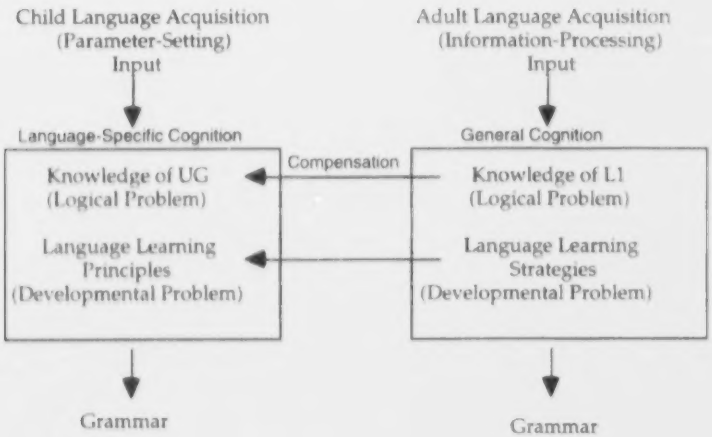
THE COMPENSATION MODEL

The Compensation Model explains the difference between child and adult language acquisition in terms of two different cognitive modules and theories operating between childhood and adulthood. This model states that child language acquisition is explained by parameter-setting in language-specific cognition which consists of knowledge of UG and language learning principles, and that adult language acquisition is explained by information-processing in general cognition which consists of knowledge of the L1 and language learning strategies. The explanatory goals of this model are the logical and developmental problems of child and adult language acquisition. In this model, the logical problem of language acquisition is explained by knowledge of UG in children and by knowledge of the L1 in adults, and the developmental problem of language acquisition is explained by language learning principles in children and by language learning strategies in adults.

The change of cognition from language-specific to general is caused by the deterioration of language-specific cognition with age. In other words, if language-specific cognition kept functioning in adult language acquisition, there would be no need to compensate for it, nor would compensation occur. Much compensation is understood to occur during adolescence gradually rather than catastrophically. Even though the gradual deterioration of language-specific cognition occurs in all human beings, there is room for individual differences in terms of onset, speed, and end point. In the compensation model, knowledge of L1 compensates for knowledge of UG, and language learning strategies compensate for the language learning principles.

The change of cognition from language-specific to general leads, in turn, to the change of language acquisition theories between childhood and adulthood from parameter-setting to information-processing. This change from parameter-setting to information-processing is caused by the deterioration of language learning principles rather than the deterioration of UG. This is because much of the knowledge accessible through UG can be reconstructed via knowledge of the L1 in adult language acquisition. However, there are no language learning principles which can function as mechanisms to interpret and analyze input in adult language acquisition. This lack of principles which can serve as language learning mechanisms in adult language acquisition blocks parameter-setting, leading adult language learners to rely on information-processing in language acquisition. Thus, adult language learners need to use language learning strategies mainly to facilitate information (input) processing. *The Compensation Model* is presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3. The Compensation Model



CONCLUSION

This paper has proposed *The Compensation Model*. The proposal of this model was stimulated by *The Competition Model* (Felix, 1985) and *The Fundamental Difference Hypothesis* (Bley-Vroman,1989). The main difference between *The Compensation Model* and *The Competition Model* is in the logical problem of adult language acquisition. That is, UG is not accessible in adult language acquisition in *The Compensation Model*, but UG is still accessible in adult language acquisition in *The Competition Model*. The difference between *The Compensation Model* and *The Fundamental Difference Hypothesis* is in the developmental problem of adult language acquisition. That is, language learning strategies take charge of the developmental problem of adult language acquisition in *The Compensation Model*, but general problem-solving systems take charge of the

developmental problem of adult language acquisition in *The Fundamental Difference Hypothesis*.

Even though L2 acquisition researchers and theoreticians have tried in vain to develop a unified theory of L2 acquisition, the development of an L2 acquisition theory is not deadlocked yet. Considering the history of L2 acquisition research, it has taken long strides, say, from a zero state to a usable state. As Christians find God in faith, if L2 acquisition researchers try to develop a theory of L2 acquisition in faith, developing it may not be far off. There is a pressing need to develop a unified theory of L2 acquisition for the domain of L2 acquisition to be considered a mature science.

Even though *The Compensation Model* may prove to be wrong and remains to be verified, it will certainly contribute to a better understanding of L2 acquisition phenomena from childhood to adulthood and to the development of a unified theory of L2 acquisition.

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Communicating Through Poetry in an ESL Classroom

MARY STARZ

Persuading students to communicate with their teacher is a great challenge. This paper explores the use of poetry as a means of gentle non threatening communication. It demonstrates the use of poetry to teach intonation, the use of adjectives, verbs and various aspects of pronunciation and syntax as well as offering the student another means of expressing feelings. The author includes a bibliography and some sample lessons. Most of the poetry used has been written by the author and her students. The most important point of this paper is that the students do communicate with their teachers and given time they also learn English while enjoying their class.

INTRODUCTION

This paper is written with the ESL student in mind and not with any age or grade level. The information contained here can be used with any age or level as long as the teacher chooses the appropriate poetry with care. However, most of the work used in the paper was accomplished with middle school students between the ages of 11 and 14. Some of the students were more advanced than others.

When a poem is cited, if the name and grade are given, it indicates that the poem was written by a student or a group of students together. If there is no grade stated, then the poem was taken from a published work (see bibliography). This paper is not based on a formal research design, rather it is a compilation of work done in the classroom.

One of the foremost problems that occurs in classrooms and especially in ESL classrooms is the inability to get students to communicate with the teacher, whether in written form or spoken form. Many ways have been tried--from calling on individual students to answer questions aloud, to having them write essays. Recently teachers have been using the journal, an excellent means of communication between teacher and students. However, even with journals, there are some students who can not express their feelings because they worry about correct structure and fear of rejection.

Poetry is another way of communicating which seems to be less threatening to some students. It provides an outlet for creative expression and it helps a shy person communicate with others by taking away the immediate worry of correct punctuation and prose structure. I have found that by using poetry I can get students to participate orally in class and at the same time they seem to want to write more in their journals. These findings are not formal research; they are the results of my love of poetry and my wish to share it with students.

I first explain to the students that poetry is another way of letting someone know how you feel. I find out how they feel about poetry and if they have ever experienced any. I find out why they either like or dislike it. Many children have been exposed to nursery rhymes in their native language which are a form of poetry. Immediately, I let them know that poetry does not have to rhyme all the time. Rhyme is a way of creating sound patterns. I do point out to students that rhyme can help them remember words or phrases. Rhyme can consist of two or more words (i.e. Go, slow, Joe) or phrases that repeat the same sound. Rhyme words are quite often spelled similarly, but that is not a

mandatory condition. What matters is the sound. (Pain drives me insane.) This is a great way to practice distinguishing between sounds. In linguistics its the use of minimal pairs. Two words that are separated by only one sound change: pin, tin. Poetry most of all for me is an invitation--An invitation to have fun while learning to manipulate the language. So come along and have some fun.

Feelings

First let us see how feelings can be expressed, for example, happiness:

Free Time
(7th Grade)

No homework!
I feel so happy
NO
Homework
Tonight!

or

The Champs
(7th grade)

Yes! Yes! We
won the game.
They thought
WE could not
win but
WE DID!

This is called free form poetry. There is really no rhyme to it and it is not complicated, but it gives the student a different feeling from ordinary prose writing. More exciting than just:

We have no homework tonight. I'm so happy.
We won the game. They thought we couldn't win, but we did.

You will notice that the beginning of every line is capitalized as are some words in the poem itself. One can explain here to the students that the capitalized words in the poem are for emphasis. The beginning of each line is capitalized because it is the beginning such as in a regular sentence. However, not all poetry has to be written in this same way.

One poem that I like which illustrates feelings, non rhyming, and no capitals or punctuation is the poem by Nikki Giovanni. It also illustrates the fact that you can write a poem for and about other people.

poem for rodney
by Nikki Giovanni

people ask me what
am i going to be
when i grow
up and i always
just think
i'd like to grow
up

This poem illustrates to the students that they are not the only ones who are uncertain about their lives. It is also great for those students who are having problems writing because they are hesitant about capital letters and punctuation. A teacher can go through this poem and point out those things which should be capitalized. A whole lesson can be built around punctuation and capitalization using this simple poem.

In contrast to this poem you can use something like the following poem for feelings of sadness.

It is Grey Out
by Karla Kuskin

It is grey out.
It is grey in.
In me
it is as grey as the day is grey.
The trees look sad
and I,
not knowing why I do,
cry.

This poem contains correct punctuation and capitalization along with a very sad feeling. While the poem written by Giovanni is about someone else, this one gives the impression that it is about how the poet feels.

At this point in a student's life they make and lose friends very quickly, however, sometimes one of their best friends moves away. I had one such case and I could not understand why suddenly one of my students was not doing her work, she was distracted and seemed very sad. After asking some of the other students if they knew what was wrong I found out that her best friend had moved away. I looked through my anthology and found the following poem. I used it to explore the idea of long distance friendships and how even though someone is gone, they can still be our friend.

I CANNOT FORGET YOU
by Makah [Found in Children's Anthology (See Bibliography)]

No matter how hard I try to forget you, you
always come back to my thoughts.
When you hear me singing I am really crying
for you.

We all talked about friends or family that had "gone away" either by moving or dying. I feel that knowing that others had these feelings of loneliness helped my student. We talked about expressing our sadness and we wrote poems. Some examples are:

Hide and Seek
by Aurora Hernandez (8th grade)

Even if you went away and I miss you
I pretend that you are only hiding
And that I will find you soon.

im sad
by Raúl Cabezas (6th grade)

ay thenk of my uncle en ay cry
caz his gon tu amarillo en
it far awey from her en ay cand si hem

Raúl is learning to speak English as well as read and write it. We worked on his poem until he could spell all the words correctly. We did this not by criticizing or actually correcting the poem, but by my introducing the various words as part of the vocabulary for each day. As he began to recognize the words, he changed them on his own. It takes time, but I think that its worth it.

Every once in awhile I have the students bring out some of the poetry they have written and we talk about how we could change it now that they know more descriptive words. I don't talk about poetry everyday, but I am always thinking of ways in which it can help the students to study or to understand situations better. In Study Skills/ESL we have been talking about organization of time and materials, so we wrote this little poem to help them remember:

(7th grade)
Be prepared and be neat
At school and play
Every day
Save your time and your feet!

Poetry fun

Not all poetry has to be serious it can be silly as we saw by the previous example. I will always remember a poem which I learned back in my elementary school days:

The Purple Cow
by Gelett Burgess

I never saw a Purple Cow
I never hope to see one;
But I can tell you, anyhow,
I'd rather see than be one.

This poem illustrates the freedom a person has in writing poetry. You can have your students think of something they would not like to be, real or imaginary, and make up a short poem about it. I like to do this in class, on the chalkboard, then I also tell the students that if they want to write one of these in their journals they may. (Some of them like to illustrate their poetry.) This helps them use their imagination and creativity also. Here are a couple of my favorite poems written by students.

A Flying Horse
by Jaime (7th grade)

A flying horse
Has much fun
Of course
I want to be one.

A Dead Snail
Joe (7th grade)

I wouldn't be a snail
So tiny and small
'Cause if I was stepped on
I would be dead.

There are many other uses for poetry such as increasing vocabulary, emphasizing the use of verbs and adjectives, learning the rhythm of the language, learning to use tone for emphasis, etc.. Going into lessons for all of these things would require a lengthy paper and since we do not have that luxury we will take a quick look at some examples of some of these things.

The First example is about similarity in sound but difference in spelling. We also have rhyme and silliness. My favorite illustrations of these are: I Scream and Going to Extremes.

I Scream
(Anonymous)

I scream, you scream
We all scream
For Ice Cream

Going to Extremes
by Richard Armour

Shake and Shake
The catsup bottle
None'll come
And then alot'll

These two poems illustrate how words can have a similar sound even though they are not spelled the same. For example, I scream and ice cream. It is mostly a matter of how the words are said and where the emphasis is placed. This is a good place to talk about intonation and stress. Have the students find words that rhyme but are not spelled the same as an out-of-class assignment. Hint: advertisements, commercials.

Type of Poetry

Use poetry which appeals to the age of your students and what they like to do; a Children's Anthology is very helpful for middle school age students if you do not compose poetry yourself. For older students you might want to use poetry found in American or English Literature Anthologies. This is a good opportunity to tell your students that they can write or talk about any sport or game they enjoy. Have your students write about their own culture or homeland. It is also a good chance to have them write some more on the chalkboard. Remember poems do not have to be long and elaborate. You might even want to give the students a list of words from a story they have read or something they have been studying and have them arrange the words in a poem. Arranging the words in a poem could be simply writing them in the form of a column in some order so as to create meaning. For example, let's say that the following words are part of the vocabulary for the day: train, relax, arrive, school, play. Let us also say that the teacher has asked the students to write sentences with those words. Following are some sample sentences written as a student might write them then put into a "poem".

1. I saw the train.

2. My mom likes to relax and watch TV.

3. My aunt will arrive tonight.

4. I go to school.

5. I like to play.

relax
on the train
arrive at
school
play

If the students are encouraged to do this type of exercise they will have an easier time remembering the words and how to use them. Of course, not all words are this easy to arrange, but all words can be arranged in a poetic form.

Poetry can be used to introduce verbs and adjectives. In a poem the student gets the feeling for how a word is used especially if emphasis is placed on it when a poem is read. The following two poems illustrate the use of adjectives and verbs.
Spring time rope skippers might enjoy the first poem.

Rope Rhyme
by Eloise Greenfield

Get set, ready now, jump right in
Bounce and kick and giggle and spin
Listen to the rope when it hits the ground
Listen to that clappedy-slappedy sound
Jump right up when it tells you to
Come back down, whatever you do
Count to a hundred, count by ten
Start to count all over again
That's what jumping is all about
Get set, ready now,
jump
right
out!

The next poem is for those brave souls who like to move fast. Notice in these two poems the shape plays an important part in the presentation of the poem.

The Sidewalk Racer
by Lillian Morrison

Skimming
an asphalt sea
I swerve, I curve, I
sway; I speed to whirring
sound an inch above the
ground; I'm the sailor
and the sail, I'm the
driver and the wheel
I'm the one and only
single engine
human auto
mobile.

The next poem utilizes capital letters and exclamation points. It is really quite simple but it conveys excitement and emotion, plus it gives the students some fun "sound" words to play with. First it is written as normal, then separated as I do for my students.

The Fourth
by
Shel Silverstein

Oh
CRASH!
my
BASH!
it's
BANG!
the
ZANG!
Fourth
WHOOSH!
of
BAROOM!
July
WHEW!

This poem portrays the sounds heard during a celebration--conveys excitement and tells us what celebration it is. You might want to try this with other holidays and see what your students convey to you about how they feel about certain holidays. When you separate the poem as follows the students get a good idea of how easy it is to express their feelings in a poem.

The Fourth
by
Shel Silverstein

Oh

CRASH!

my

BASH!

it's

BANG!

the

ZANG!

Fourth

WHOOSH!

of

BAROOM!

July

WHEW!

Meanings

Meanings in poems are conveyed by the arrangement of the words, but you don't want to get caught up in delving into the meanings too much if you are only trying to help the student learn vocabulary and various other word usage, and, most

importantly, if you are trying to get the students to communicate with you. When you read their poems in their journals you can consider meaning more because they will be telling you, the teacher, something about themselves. You can however, emphasize certain feelings or emotions by emphasizing phrases or words. For example in the first two little poems at the beginning of the paper the capitalization of **No** and **We did** makes the feeling of the poem more emphatic, as does the capitalization in this Fourth of July poem.

Another way to get students to communicate orally is to create a poem in class. There are several ways to do this even if you do not consider yourself a poet. Robert Morgan uses anagram word games as a form of poetry. You can also get your students to participate in class and increase their vocabulary by using anagrams. This type of poetry is sometimes called Spore Prose.

Mountain Graveyard
by Robert Morgan

stone	notes
slate	tales
sacred	cedars
heart	earth
asleep	please
hated	death

All these words evoke feelings of death. You can lighten the mood for your students by picking a topic that is lighter and maybe more relevant and working with them to find anagrams. Example: read-dare.

My favorite classroom activity involving poetry is to use the students' names to make poems. The students love to see their names in print and at times I have written down what we compose on the chalkboard and later typed it on the computer and returned it to the students. Here is an example of this type of poetry, formally called Acrostic Poetry.

Sharing new friendships

These are some examples of poems done in a Middle School ESL classroom:

R aul is
A very kind
U nderstanding
L eader

B ut he has
A n attitude that
C an make us
A fraid of him.

E verybody
R emembers that
I
C an't sing
A nd they won't let me try.

M aybe we
A rgue too much but I am
R ight
I n believing you're my
O nly real friend

J ust because
O f the way you are
S ome day we will
H ave a great team.
Y ou
A nd me
T ogether for
E ver
S on.

These poems were written during class. The first three we put on the chalkboard. The last one was handed in as an assignment.

Not all of the students' efforts come out as fabulous poetry, but they do show you, the teacher, how that student is feeling at that moment. This may give you an idea for further lessons and for better understanding of your students.

I hope that I have been able to give you some ideas of what you can do with poetry which is really just another form of communication. Let your imagination run wild and let your students' imaginations run wild. Of course this paper is not to propose that using poetry will get all of your ESL students to communicate with you, but you will reach a large number especially if you make it fun and exciting. One other point you might want to consider which really helps when students write in their journal is the following: Unless you are emphasizing a particular grammatical point, don't mark up a student's poem with a red pen. Write your suggestions on the margins with a lead pencil. Remember, this is a creation from the heart.

On the following pages I have included some sample lessons that you may want to use with your students. Using poetry in your ESL classroom does not have to be a lot of extra work and it can be very rewarding as a non threatening way for your students to communicate their feelings and an excellent way for you to learn what they are thinking. It also gives students the ability to manipulate the language while learning to speak and write it. For most students, it takes the monotony out of learning.

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APPENDIX
Communicating Through Poetry in an ESL Classroom

Suggestions for Student Assignments

1. Expressing feelings

Write one or two sentences on how you feel right now or on how you felt over the weekend. Then put the words in the form of a poem. Emphasize the words that are the most important to the expression of the feeling.

Example: I am very lonely on weekends. I miss my friends.

I am
VERY lonely
on
weekends.
I MISS
my
friends.

I hurt myself so badly it made me cry.

PAIN
Hurt
Tears
ME

2. Homework Fun Assignment: Find 10 pairs of words that sound the same but are made up of several words: I scream/ice cream, keep out/key pout, to me/tummy, my knee/money, etc. You will have to listen hard for these words because they only sound the same when used in normal speech. Look for them on signs. Listen for them in commercials or find them in magazines. Write down where you found the words. Write a funny poem with them. TEACHERS: You may want to use this for a more advanced class.

In class: Use the lists to increase vocabulary- To differentiate the sounds and discuss how the words differ and how they are the same. The students can discuss how the words were being used in the commercial, sign, etc. Variation: Words **spelled the same** but have one sound different: pin-tin, he-me, pay-may, snow/slow in other words--minimal pairs.

3. Same as above only find words that rhyme **but are not spelled the same** . For example: pie/eye, etc. Write a little poem with some of the words. Example:

I got
Pie in
my eye
when **I**
went **by** the bakery.

4. In class write anagrams then use them in a loose form poem. You might want to use words you are studying in a story if they lend themselves to anagrams. Or have the students make up their own: Example: read--dare, kids--skid, tops--spot and so forth.

5. In class write poems using the students' names on the chalkboard with the whole class participating or make it a small group activity and have the students in each group

use each others names. These poems could be descriptive or they could contain a message or express a feeling.

Example: **L** ovely
I ngenious
L ikeable
I maginative
A miable

R emember
O ur meeting after
B asketball practice.
E ven if we stay late, Mr.
R amos will be waiting
T o take us home.

The Status of Foreign Language in the Elementary School in Austin: Is the Spirit Still Willing and the FLES Still Weak?

ZENA T. MOORE and ANGELA RAMSAY

This paper reports an investigation into foreign language instruction in elementary schools in the city of Austin. The findings indicate that a very small percentage of students (28%) study a foreign language, 17% in regular classes and 11% in after school classes. These classes vary in structure and intensity, lacked articulation with other classes, lacked adequately trained teachers and occurred in schools which were financially able to afford them. The findings point to the need for state mandated programs which would be coordinated and supervised by trained personnel.

INTRODUCTION

One of the many criticisms aimed at the profession is the lack of interest in, and the scarcity of research topics relating to, foreign language education at the elementary school level. A review of the last three decades of literature does indeed provide ample evidence that the bulk of research continues to focus on foreign language education at the secondary and college levels. Nevertheless, leaders in the field do recognize the need for longer contact hours, and do recommend that foreign language instruction begin at the elementary school level. Six years ago, in 1989, the National Priorities Conference hosted by ACTFL stated that:

> A primary goal in the next decade is to work actively to increase the number of high-quality, carefully designed elementary school foreign language programs based on a strong administrative, parental and community support. *This will ensure that every child, regardless of learning style, achievement level, race/ethnic origin, socioeconomic status, home language or future academic goals,* may begin language learning early and continue the language in a long, well-articulated sequence of carefully developed curriculum. (Met & Rhodes, p. 438)

Still, progress continues to be slow. In 1988 a national survey showed that only 22% of the elementary schools surveyed offered foreign languages. Texas was at that time one of two states in the process of considering the establishment of such requirements (Rosenbusch, 1985). That was seven years ago. To date no such requirements have been mandated. Texas is still one of the forty-two states in the nation that have not officially mandated Foreign Language Education in the Elementary School (FLES) programs. Texas is also one of those states that do not require high school students to pursue foreign language study. Does that mean that Texas has fallen behind other more progressive states?

This certainly appears to be the case if we examine what is taking place around the country. In December 1988, for example, the Arizona State Board of Education passed a mandate requiring that all elementary schools in Arizona initiate a foreign language program in at least one grade level by the year 1991-1992.. It is hoped that by the year 1999 a foreign language will be offered to all grades K-8. Arizona is perhaps the state most similar to Texas in terms of its proximity to

Mexico and in the ethnic composition of its school population. The Arizona FLES mandate is seen as a positive response to the growing educational needs of the diverse student population that fills the public schools.

Although there is no similar mandate that directs compulsory foreign language instruction in the schools, the Texas Board of Education vigorously encourages enrollment in foreign language classes. For example, the Recommended High School Plan includes a foreign language option for graduation, the Advanced High School Program includes two units of foreign language study, and the proposed Project EXCELL, (Excellence and Challenge: Expectations for Language Learners), currently being drafted, calls for specific foreign language requirements and standardization at all school levels. As a result of these efforts the number of students studying foreign languages has steadily increased, albeit very slowly, over the last decade, rising from 12.7 % in the 1981-82 school year to 19.3 % in 1991-92, a slow but steady 7% increase in ten years. This increase averages out to less than 1% per year.

The increase, however small, is heartening in light of the fact that foreign languages, as of 1994, will now be included as part of the core curriculum for all school children nationwide with instruction beginning at the kindergarten level. Is Texas ready for the challenges demanded by such a policy? What do we know of foreign language education at the elementary school level in Texas?

THE STUDY

In the Fall of 1994 this study was undertaken with the sole purpose of gathering information about FLES in the city of Austin. The intention was to add to the existing database on FLES programs throughout the state of Texas as a whole. Data were collected from telephone interviews with relevant school personnel, from documents and records at the state department in Austin and from visits made to schools that offered FLES instruction.

This paper presents information on the seven school districts in the Travis County in which the city of Austin is located. Because of the length and scope of the study, the paper highlights only the following: (a) the number of students enrolled in foreign language programs, (b) an overview of the basic characteristics of the existing FLES programs, (c) some findings based on the socioeconomic character of the school communities, and (d) the implications for extension and strengthening of foreign language instruction.

FINDINGS

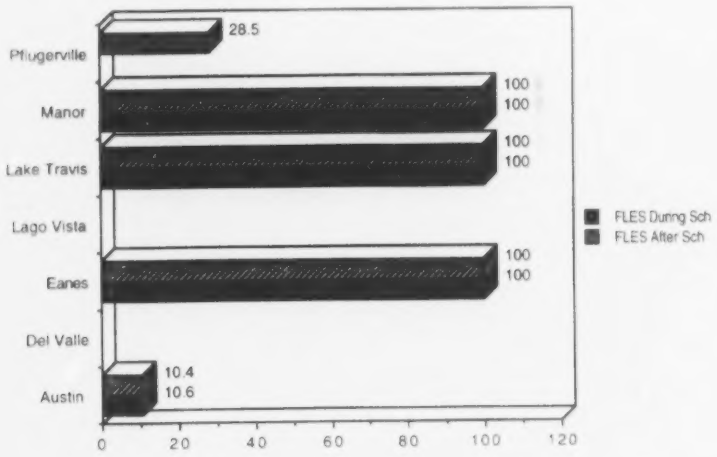
Student Enrollment

There are eight-six elementary schools in the seven school districts with a total population of 49,298 students. Of the seven school districts only five offered any type of foreign language instruction, and this to only some students. In all only 28% of the elementary school children, or 14,097 students, in the Travis County, studied a foreign language. Of that 28%, only 17%, that is 8,502 students, were enrolled in classes during regular school hours. The remaining 11%, or 5,595, participated in after-school programs. Table 1 presents the data on school districts and FLES offerings.

Table 1. Student Enrollment in Travis County by School Districts

School Districts	No of Schools	Student Enrollment	Existence of FLES Programs
Lago Vista	1	334	None
Del Valle	5	2,591	None
Pflugerville	7	4,245	After school programs at two of its 7 schools
Eanes	5	3,047	YES K-5
Lake Travis	1	1,234	YES K-5
Manor	1	782	YES K-6.
Austin	66	37,065	YES at 9 schools
TOTALS	86	49,298 School Enrollment	14,097 FLES Enrollment

Figure 1. FLES Instruction in Travis County School Districts



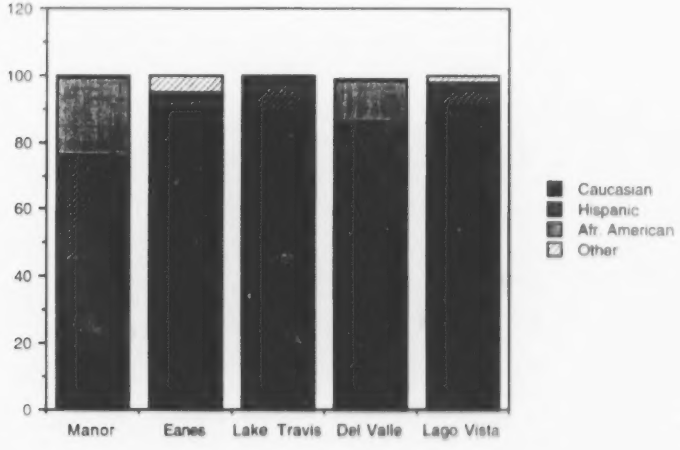
Findings revealed that of the seven school districts, only three, Eanes, Lake Travis and Manor, offered FLES instruction to all their students. Such instruction took place either during the regular school hours or in after-school programs. Of

the remaining four school districts only nine schools had foreign language offerings, and of these, two were in Pflugerville and seven were in Austin. It is notable that Del Valle and Lago Vista, with a joint student enrollment of 2,925, had no foreign language offering. Figure 1 presents a graphic depiction of FLES offerings and school districts.

Further examination of the data revealed that, according to the student ethnic distribution statistics of 1993-1994, two of the three school districts with the greatest FLES activity, Eanes and Lake Travis, also had the highest enrollment of Caucasian students, while Del Valle, with the highest percentage of Hispanic students, was one of the two districts that had no foreign language offering. There appeared to be some relationship between ethnicity, family income and FLES. However, when we examined the Manor School District profiles we saw that it had the most ethnically balanced student enrollment, yet in spite of this, ranked equally with Eanes and Lake Travis with respect to its FLES offerings.

Nevertheless, data revealed not only that Eanes and Lake Travis had the oldest FLES programs and a majority Caucasian student enrollment, but that they also had the lowest percentage of economically disadvantaged students, and a very small percentage of Limited English Proficiency students. Details presented in Figure 2 were taken from Austin ISD 1993-1994 report on ethnic composition.

Figure 2. Ethnic Distribution in School Districts



Findings reported above suggest that there were two factors apparently influencing FLES offerings in schools. One appeared to be the ethnic composition of the student body and the other the socio-economic standing of the community. In

most schools FLES programs were generally regarded as enrichment programs, and did not form part of the core curriculum. Therefore, if the school was unable to fund them and parents were also unable to pay, foreign language programs could not exist. Data did indicate that the FLES programs in Eanes, Lake Travis, and Manor and four of the Austin programs were funded by the school, and in two other Austin schools parents paid an annual fee of 70 dollars.

It would appear, then, that schools with families of relatively high socio-economic status which were capable of supporting FLES programs did offer such instruction to their students. Schools with a high percentage of Hispanic students, larger numbers of LEP students and a greater number of lower income families generally did not have FLES programs.

FLES During School

1. Languages Taught

Only two foreign languages are taught in the Travis county schools, fifteen schools offer instruction in Spanish and one school offers Latin. The major reasons for choosing Spanish were proximity to Mexico, the presence of a large community of Spanish speakers, and the availability of teachers. In the single school where Latin is taught, the coordinator believed that it was "the only nonpolitical choice in such an ethnically diverse area as Austin." (interview with the coordinator)

2. Primary Goals

All FLES programs contained well-defined language and cultural goals for their students. These included a respect for cultural differences, the development of survival language skills, and the provision of a foundation for the continuation of foreign language study at the secondary school level. Eanes School District had established standardized objectives across all programs with the expressed purpose of establishing some type of articulation between grade levels.

The goals of the Latin program included the desire to embrace the culture of Rome, to foster awareness of cultural differences, and also to improve English language skills. This program model was based on one developed for inner city children in Los Angeles to improve their English vocabulary and literacy. This was an interesting finding since Eanes school district is one of the most affluent in the county and does not have many LEP students.

3. Teacher Information

The number of FLES teachers varied according to schools, programs and enrollment. Some schools had an in-house FLES teacher while others like Lake Travis, employed an itinerant teacher to teach all students on both campuses. Yet other schools, like Manor, had a even more complex arrangement. Grades 4-6 was taught by a FLES teacher. FLES was integrated with the music and art curriculum for Grade 3 and was taught by the music and art teacher, and teacher aides taught students in K-2.

One of the most distinctive feature of FLES programs was the wide variation in the role and teaching load of the teachers within the same school district. In the Latin programs in one of the Austin schools, for example, there was one teacher per grade level. In another school there was a staff of six volunteers for Spanish. In yet

another school the program was taught by the regular classroom teacher if he or she had the necessary qualifications.

The qualifications of FLES teachers also varied a great deal. A common feature, however, was that most teachers had some qualifications in Spanish and an elementary teacher certification. Quite a few teachers also had endorsement in bilingual education. The majority of the teachers were native speakers from a variety of Spanish-speaking countries who were all given three to six months training prior to teaching the FLES classes. In the case of Latin there was one high school Latin teacher who was responsible for training qualified elementary teachers in the skills of teaching Latin.

4. Program Structure

There also existed great variation in time-tabling and time allocation for foreign language instruction. FLES instruction varied from one weekly class of fifteen minutes to ninety minute-classes every day. Table 2 summarizes some of the characteristics of these programs.

Table 2. Program Structure

Length of Classes	Grades	Schools
15 minutes once a week	3-6	Lee
30 minutes once a week	K-3	Manor
	K-5	Summitt
30 minutes twice a week	K-6	Pease
	2-4	Highland Park
30 minutes daily	4-6	Manor
35 minutes twice a week	K-2	All Eanes Schools
35 minutes every other day	3-5	All Eanes Schools
45 minutes once a week	K-2	Highland Park, Doss
45 minutes twice a week	2-5	Doss
45 minutes daily for 3 weeks	K-5	Lake Travis
45 minutes every 4 days	5	Highland Park
90 minutes daily	5-6	Bryker Woods

5. Materials and Teaching Methodologies

The teachers reported using a great deal of supplemental materials, both commercial and teacher-made, in addition to the materials provided by the school. The majority of programs, however, adopted the series *Viva el Español* which the State Board of Education recently recommended. Most teachers found the series very useful since it provided sequencing and structure, included such items as books, cassette tapes, picture and vocabulary cards. In addition, it utilized puppets and recommended such methods as Total Physical Response. It also encouraged the use of songs and student centered activities. The textbooks form part a four-part series intended to provide sequence for FLES programs. They are Viva *el Español, Converso Mucho , Converso Más* and *Ya Comunicando.*

6. Articulation Between Levels

None of the programs had provisions for articulation from elementary to secondary schools, but some allowed for articulation within levels in the same schools. In Manor, for example, the students received instruction until grade 6 and could move directly into Grade 7. At Lake Travis, on the other hand, students received instruction until grade 5 and did not begin language study again until Grade 7. In Eanes, the grade 5 students moved into a twelve-week, grade-six-language discovery program. Likewise, the elementary students in Austin moved directly into a grade-six-discovery program. None of the secondary level language programs assumed any prior language instruction.

7. Funding and Support

Nearly all of the programs indicated a high level of support from parents, administration, community members and other teachers. FLES programs were either funded by the school or by parents. The programs at Eanes, Lake Travis, and Manor and four of the Austin programs are funded by the school. Two Austin programs charged seventy dollars a year for enrollment in one of the programs. Regardless of the source of funding, however, there was general skepticism that many programs may be canceled due to budget cuts and insufficient funding.

8. Evaluation

None of the programs surveyed included any measures for program evaluation. Most of the programs with more than one teacher indicated that they met weekly to discuss any concerns. The Eanes schools appeared to be the only ones that attempted to provide some sort of alignment to ensure standardization of the programs. As for student evaluation, most of the programs reported informal evaluations. The Eanes and the Manor schools were the only ones that attempted to establish some sort of regular evaluation of their students. They included a grade of minus, check or plus on their students report cards based on students' pronunciation, participation and notebook maintenance.

9. Major Problems

In spite of strong enthusiasm and support from community, parents and teachers, most FLES programs experienced problems with funding. As one of the Eanes teachers remarked, foreign language was grouped with the rest of "the specials", which were usually the first programs to be jeopardized in a budget crisis. The second problem mentioned in the data was the lack of adequately trained teachers to run the programs. The third problem dealt with inadequate time in the school day to allow for quality instruction.

After School FLES Programs

Nine schools offered after-school FLES programs. Of these programs, two were offered at Pflugerville schools and seven at Austin schools. There were four different means through which the schools offered these programs: (1) through the support of parents, (2) through community schools, (3) through Austin Parks and Recreation, and (4) through the Independent Foreign Language Schools.

The oldest of the programs was three years old and was taught by a parent in the Austin school district. It was opened to all grade levels with two multi-level

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classes which met twice a week for thirty minutes each. The teaching materials, methodology, and sequencing were also drawn from the *Viva el Español* series. The school had future plans to integrate the program into the regular school day .

After-school FLES instruction was also made possible through the extensive Community School network that the county offered. However, only one school in the Austin district participated in this service. This program generally met once a week for four to five weeks and the parents paid nineteen dollars per student for tuition. Teachers were found within the schools and community, and the materials and methods used were also based on the *Viva el Español* series. The third type of after-school FLES program was made possible through one of the Austin Parks and Recreation centers. At the time of this survey, however, there were no schools participating.

The fourth alternative for offering FLES after-school programs was through the International Educational System's (IES) Language Foundation, which is a nonprofit organization with locations in over forty states. All five of the Austin schools offered a program through IES. An interview with the Austin Director of IES revealed that if a school wanted to begin a program, there must be a minimum of seven students. Students were generally divided by grade levels and they met once a week for one hour. The programs lasted from four to eight months, at a cost of thirty-eight dollars a month per student. This money also covered instructional material. The teachers involved in these programs were all native speakers of Spanish with extensive training in methodology. IES also has clearly defined goals, which according to the director are:

(1) To reach all children with the gift of other languages and cultures;
(2) To motivate students to want to speak other languages and to know other cultures;
(3) To support all educational systems (both public and private) and to reinforce the values of global education by means of our language programs;
(4) To help all children enjoy languages and cultures and to develop global awareness;
(5) To develop positive attitudes toward all people.

We highlighted these features of the IES program because several schools are opting to work with IES to provide after-school foreign language study. In addition, the program offered at IES is being used as a model for many of the other programs in Travis County.

SUMMARY

The following conclusions are based upon the data collected in connection with this study. First of all, there existed a small number of FLES programs in the Austin area, and these were concentrated in Travis County. Seventeen percent (17%) of the elementary students had the opportunity to learn a foreign language during regular school hours.

While the majority of programs followed the elementary Spanish learning series adopted by the state, there remained considerable diversity in the way in which the materials and methodologies were adapted to suit the needs of each class. Alterations and supplementation of materials primarily reflected variation in both the amount of time spent per week and the grade levels involved in the programs.

There existed a consensus regarding the goals of the various FLES programs, but no evaluation measures were currently taking place to ascertain whether these goals were in fact being achieved. This was an indication that not only were the FLES programs not fully incorporated into the elementary curriculum, but that they were also not taken as seriously as the other subject areas.

The implementation and subsequent success of the FLES programs relied heavily on parental support. Funding remained the greatest problem facing FLES programs in Austin. Foreign language instruction at the elementary level in Austin was considered to be part of the enrichment curriculum, rather than an essential component of the curriculum.

An overview of the schools offering FLES revealed that the programs were located in schools comprised of a higher than average proportion of Caucasian students. The students in schools that were more ethnically mixed, and/or that had large number of students from lower income families, were not offered access to FLES programs. This fact may be interpreted as example of educational inequality.

Problems identified in the FLES programs in this study were similar to those in other FLES studies, specifically those outlined by Grittner (1991), and cited as the five areas believed to have been the cause of FLES failure in the past. Grittner believed that FLES programs need to address time allocation, teaching methods, teacher preparation, unrealistic program expectations, and lack of articulation. These observations were also made by Met (1991), Lipton (1991), and Schinke-Llano (1985).

RECOMMENDATIONS

What are some possible solutions? Some of the recommendations for FLES programs in Travis County demand attention by administrative bodies while others have to be resolved through professional and pedagogic approaches. For example, while Met (1991), correctly identified TIME and INTENSITY as the two most important elements for quality FLES programs, these issues can only be addressed by those school officials responsible for course scheduling. The perennial complaint is an already overcrowded timetable. An overall restructuring of the time-table to include FLES programs is possible only by joint negotiation and cooperation.

The second recommendation dealing with articulation may be more easily rectified. Since schools offering FLES programs are a part of the school district, it may be feasible for the district to consider employing a FLES specialist, whose main tasks will be to coordinate the programs, to design evaluation procedures, to supervise instruction and to work with teacher training centers to provide in-service and pre-service courses for teachers. Part of that specialist's job will be to prepare a sample resource manual to be made available to school districts. This manual will include sample units, with accompanying sample lessons, activities and visuals. Such instructional material should be regularly evaluated.

Linguistic proficiency and cultural awareness goals at each grade must be established to appropriately measure students' progress, both collectively and individually. Standardizing instructional material may be the first step to designing appropriate forms of assessment of students' competencies and proficiency levels. The study revealed that those schools using the State Board of Education recommended texts reported the most structured FLES programs in Spanish. FLES studies have shown that teachers need all the help they can get in terms of

instructional material (Met, 1989; Pesola, 1991; Lipton, 1991). Standardizing the texts or establishing standards for instructional material not only facilitates assessment/testing but also facilitate articulation at multi-level entry points.

While schools must be left free to decide on specifics of their own programs, it is essential for them to resolve several questions, for example, for whom the program is intended, the desired outcomes, the parents' wishes, the resources and choices of available languages. Foremost among the individuals who will have strong opinions about language choices are the teachers and ethnic groups in the community who may want their language to be the one that their descendants learn in school. Parents, business leaders and other community members must have input in deciding language offerings. Some FLES educators believe that the language does not matter since any language can fulfill the benefits of global awareness, enhanced basic skills, identification with other cultures, self-esteem and communicative language skills. One can reasonably argue that the case of Latin seems questionable. What is more important is that all involved be included in the decision making process.

Finally FLES programs themselves need to be evaluated. The FLES program Evaluation Inventory (FPEI), designed by Heining-Boynton (1991) can serve as a model. The questionnaire in this inventory is short (12-20 items) and refers to program philosophy, training, time consumption, materials, and classroom atmosphere among other features. This model has been tried and has proven to be very effective (Heining-Boynton, 1991).

CONCLUSION

This study was undertaken to increase our knowledge of foreign language education at the elementary school level in the city of Austin, with special focus on the Travis County area where there was the greatest FLES activity. We are aware that there are exceptional FLES programs throughout the state of Texas, and we are also aware of the existence of the Texas FLES* Institute whose mission is to provide teachers and administrators with the skills and knowledge and hands-on activities needed for successful FLES* programs.

The June 1995 FLES four-day intensive workshop to be held in Dallas and organized by the national FLES* Institute of Texas is yet another of the institute's efforts to extend FLES awareness and promote FLES programs throughout the state. At the same time we are also aware that for many schools FLES is just another attraction, another point on the checklist that is used to describe the quality of schools and school districts. While there are laudable attempts by national and state bodies to increase the number of quality programs, unless these are monitored, supervised and evaluated and unless the teachers are trained and duly remunerated and the students properly assessed, such curriculum offerings remain nothing more than items on an inventory list for a privileged few.

In spite of the lack of a foreign language requirement for all students, Texas seems well prepared for the implementation of the National Standards in Foreign Language Education. The State Board of Education in July 1992 approved the elements of the standard curriculum to be taught to all students in all public schools. Revision of those elements that call for the integration of language skills and a new description of language proficiency levels will be implemented by 1996. Many of these goals are similar to those outlined in the National Standards in

Foreign Language Education. For example, the Texas Essential Elements stress oral communication, written communication and knowledge of another culture and language. The goals of the National Standards also include communication in a language other than English, knowledge of other cultures, and the ultimate ability to participate in a multilingual global society. It should not be difficult then for Texas to set in motion effective administrative and professional means for enacting the national goals for all its children regardless of race, color, economic class, or creed.

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REVIEWS

Teaching ESL Writing

Joy M. Reid. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Regents/Prentice Hall, 1993. Pp. 354.

According to the latest statistics, about 450,000 international students are enrolled in U.S. colleges and universities. When the large number of recent immigrants who attend these institutions is added to this number, ESL students undoubtedly form a significant percentage of the U.S. campus population. All ESL students, like their native-speaker (NS) counterparts, are required to take Freshman English and other writing courses.

In these courses, ESL students are often placed in classes with native-speaker students, and in some institutions, even compelled to compete with native-speakers at exit examinations. The required writing courses and the placement procedure are probably unique to U.S. post-secondary education. (For instance, it is highly unlikely that foreign students learning the Japanese language in Japan would be placed in classes with native-speakers of Japanese, or foreign students learning German in Germany with native-speakers of German.) In recent publications, ESL writing specialists such as Braine (1994) and Silva (1994), among others, have argued for the placement of ESL students in writing courses especially designed for these students.

However, colleges and universities face two problems in teaching writing to ESL students. The first is the inability to hire qualified personnel, especially in times of budgetary restraints. As a result, teachers who have no training in teaching ESL students often find themselves given this responsibility. The second problem is the shortage of ESL teachers who have the training to teach writing. This is a direct result of the long neglect of writing in graduate programs in TESOL; courses such as "Teaching ESL Writing" are a fairly new phenomenon and not included in all these programs,

In an attempt to confront these problems, two ESL writing specialists have recently published two landmark volumes. The first is Ilona Leki's *Understanding ESL Writers* (1992) and the second is Joy Reid's *Teaching ESL Writing* (1993). While Leki's book is meant both as a theoretical and pedagogical introduction to the field, *Teaching ESL Writing* is written mainly for graduate students who are planning to teach ESL writing at post-secondary level.

Teaching ESL Writing consists of ten chapters, a useful annotated bibliography, and a 45-page Works Cited section, perhaps the most comprehensive in the field. At the end of each chapter, discussion questions and topics for reflective writing are included. The topics covered in the chapters range from an "Overview of Native English Speaker (NES) Composition" (Chapter 1) to "Teaching ESL Writing: Becoming a Professional" (Chapter 1).

The other chapters deal with topics such as an overview of ESL composition, pedagogical issues in ESL writing, curriculum and syllabus design, handling the first week of an ESL writing course, collaborative and cross-cultural activities, English for Academic Purposes (EAP), responding to student writing, and evaluation of writing. The sequencing of chapters reflects the close link between ESL and NES composition, and enables readers with no prior knowledge of TESOL and/or the

teaching of writing to use the book as an introductory resource.

The book is broadly divided into four parts. The first two chapters serve as an introduction to the field of composition, describing the major trends in composition theory and pedagogy, for both NES and ESL. Chapters 3 and 4 provide more specific information, from pedagogical issues relevant to ESL composition to planning the curriculum. Chapter 4 includes authentic examples to illustrate the various types of syllabi described. Chapters 5 through 9 focus on the teaching of ESL writing, and deal with a variety of topics: planning of lessons, forming a classroom community, dealing with student "resistance" to change, developing cross-cultural awareness, planning group work, forming the reading-writing connection, conferencing with students, and evaluating writing. These chapters, in keeping with their classroom orientation, are filled with authentic course information, lesson plans, classroom activities, student surveys, peer-review sheets, conference-planning worksheets, and scoring guides. Chapter 10 contains useful advice to the novice teacher on becoming a professional. The appendices contain self-evaluation worksheets and peer-review worksheets for teachers.

Chapter 7, titled "English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and Integrated Skills Activities," is illustrative of the author's approach. The chapter is divided into a number of sections. They are Sequencing Assignments, The Writing-Reading Connection, Integrated Skills Activities, Designing Activities and Writing Assignments, and Conclusion. As in all chapters, Chapter 7 also ends with Discussion Questions and Writing activities. Under the first section, Sequencing Assignments, the author provides a sample sequence. Similarly, under Writing-Reading Connection, journal writing and reading; reading and writing about peer and self-writing; nonfiction reading and writing; and reading and writing about literature are described. Under the next section, Integrated Writing Skills, surveys; games, role-play, and writing; and situations and writing are described in detail. As in all chapters, specialized terms are boldfaced and defined in a glossary.

In the Preface to *Teaching ESL Writing* , Joy Reid states that her objective in writing the book was to provide inexperienced teachers with "a resource to consult before they entered the ESL classroom" (p. vii). Reid has achieved her objective splendidly. The book is a rich mixture of theory, research, and pedagogy, and is a reflection of Reid's vast experience in the field of ESL writing. *Teaching ESL Writing* should be a required text in Rhetoric and Composition programs and in TESOL programs. The book is also a gentle reminder to TESOL program administrators of the necessity for coursework in post-secondary writing pedagogy in their programs.

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GEORGE BRAINE

The Language Teaching Matrix, 2 nd ed.
Richards, Jack C. New York: Cambridge University Press, 1990. Pp. ix, 185.

As the title of Richards' book suggests, its scope goes beyond the narrow bounds of the curriculum, methodology or instructional materials *per se* as practiced by most writers in this field, but rather encompasses all these factors including teachers and students as a comprehensive network of interactions for effective language teaching. The author explicitly addresses himself to those language teachers and teacher trainees who may find themselves involved in the isolated concern of the planning of courses, the choosing of methods, and the writing of materials, tasks for which they often do not have adequate training in integration.

The Language Teaching Matrix comprises eight chapters altogether. Each chapter takes a central issue in language teaching and examines its role and position within the network of factors to be considered. Chapter 1 presents a comprehensive view of curriculum development in second language teaching. In Chapter 2 the nature of methodology is explored as a dynamic, creative, and exploratory process. Chapter 3 through 6 deal with the nature of four language skills from different perspectives. Chapter 7 shifts the reader's attention to self-monitoring, "a simple but effective technique (p. 132)" through the elaboration of three major approaches (personal reflection, self-reporting, and audio or video recordings of a lesson) with some practical suggestions for implementation, and Chapter 8 considers approaches to developing programs for students of limited English proficiency.

As a book which explains, in a lucid and approachable way, why language teaching should be approached as a dynamic process, this will be an invaluable introductory text. It is profusely illustrated with examples and appendixes, and sets of discussion questions and tasks for each chapter will make it very readable and digestible, especially for those who are not familiar with the current situation in SLA research.

However, there are some ways this book could be improved. Excellent in parts, this book is marred by a mixture of styles and content. It is inconsistent in style in that a conclusion is included in each chapter from 3 to 8 while the first two chapters use implications and summary instead. In terms of content, Chapter 7 seems to be irrelevant to the context in that self-monitoring, though important in teacher development, is a rather impractical and time-consuming technique and it is merely at the level of procedure compared with the other issues in this book at the level of approach and design defined earlier in "The Context of Language Teaching" by the same author. Moreover, the reader might be a little disappointed to find nowhere in the book the expected interpretation of the matrix through a graphic display as the title suggests. The understanding of the network is thus limited in interaction. Nevertheless, this book has a great deal to offer, not only to the classroom practitioner, but also to the teacher trainee in language teaching field. While it contains some shortcomings, these are relatively minor. Its greatest virtue is that it presents a comprehensive view of language teaching in a coherent and relatively digestible form.

JUN LIU

Multicultural Communication Skills in the Classroom.
Adler, Sol. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1993. Pp. ix, 214.

With the ever increasing multiculturalism of our schools today, this volume appears to offer additional substantive contribution to the field of second language literacy by focusing on ways to enhance the interface among classroom teachers, speech language specialists, and special education professional who interact with linguistically diverse speakers. The first chapter introduces the reader to a rather broad view of emerging multicultural patterns in the United States into the next century. These developing patterns are particularly relevant to classroom teachers as Adler posits that the forthcoming years will necessitate an increasing awareness among teachers and scholars that change must occur in some of the traditional assessment and management patterns with multicultural clients. Noteworthy is the demographic data estimating the cultural influences and differences in pluralistic America that may affect speech-language usage. Although some data is dated (1986 figures), this does not minimize its significance in suggesting that the nontraditional social environment of a more culturally diverse population in which many children are being raised may have a significant impact upon language-cognitive learning and usage.

The next two chapters takes a sociolinguistic approach to analyze what is arguably the major theme of this book, namely, the English language, and particularly, the standard English variant of the English language, "the most prestigious dialect used by educated mainstream American speakers" (p. 101), is a basic bridge to all the different American ethnic, racial, and social class groups. In chapter two for example, Adler contends that if nothing is done to help children become effective standard English speakers (their "school" talk) while retaining their dialects (their "everyday," "home," or "street" talk) they may be severely penalized with respect to their education. Appropriately following this discussion, chapters three and four present an intriguing analysis of the social implications of two dialectal speech patterns, African-American English and Appalachian English. Each discussion is factual, well written, thoroughly researched, and well connected to the theme of this book. Equally important is the discussion on the assessment of nonstandard speakers of English. Chapter six for example, examines the very emotional issue of culturally biased tests and how to convey a greater sense of our country's cultural diversity and in particular, its linguistic diversity, without denigrating or distorting the major role of the Euro-centric culture so predominant in our mainstream way of life.

Adler adroitly recognizes that the language and culture of the culturally different child needs to be respected in our educational system. The investigation into the Appalachian and African-American social dialects in American society clearly reflects that awareness. Despite these admonitions, there appears to be a pervasive yet subtle promotion for the sole use of the standard English over nonstandard and nonnative English speaking children attending our schools. This bias, though reducing some of the objectivity required for a thorough discussion on this subject, still does not interfere with a genuine attempt to present a balanced viewpoint. The last two chapters deal with this issue of managing so called nonstandard speakers and details the research of an experimental bidialectal approach which is designed to provide for an equivalent manner of speech in the

classroom. Adler fails to show the validity of such an approach and indeed fully admits that there are some major difficulties to overcome. Most of us clearly recognize the cultural and linguistic differences in our schools today and the concomitant severity of the communication disparities. The suggestions offered in this volume advocate the use of standard English throughout our educational system as one way of dealing with this issue. For this reader, the volume left an overall impression of the importance of reflection on issues such as bidialectal and bicultural language teaching and fostering new approaches toward improving educational programming. Perhaps what is needed is not just an effective way to teach children to speak in standard English but a synthesis of perspectives that can realize the contributions that nonstandard and nonnative languages can bring to multicultural teaching strategies.

MARK A. ENGLISH

Editorial Policy

TPFLE is devoted to the promotion of pedagogical and theoretical issues relating to Foreign/Second Language Education, Teaching of English as a Foreign/Second Language, and Applied Linguistics related to language learning and teaching. Manuscripts submitted for publication undergoes blind evaluation by two referees selected from the members of the editorial advisory board. The editor has the right to make editorial changes in any manuscript accepted for publication.

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